


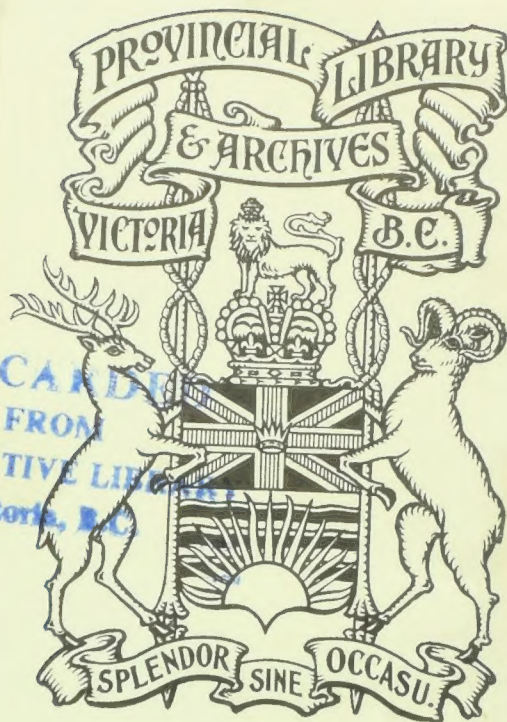
# HIGHROADS OF HISTORY

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ROYAL  
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The Pilgrim Fathers leaving Delft Haven.  
(From the picture by C. W. Cope, R.A.)



THE ROYAL SCHOOL SERIES

# Highroads of History

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## Book V (a).

(From 1603 to Modern Times)

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## **B O O K   V (a).**

### **From 1603 to Modern Times.**

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#### **I. THE UNION JACK.**

1. On page 19 there is a picture of the Union Jack, the national flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. No doubt it is very familiar to you, for on the king's birthday, or on some other day of public rejoicing, you see it floating over your town hall, your church, or, it may be, your school. If you live by the sea you are sure to notice it frequently, either on the white ensign of men-of-war, or the blue ensign of naval reserve captains, or the red ensign on merchant vessels. No Briton can help being proud of the Union Jack. It flies over the greatest empire the world has ever known ; and wherever it flies, there are to be found at least justice and fair dealing for every man. Nearly one quarter of the whole earth is ruled by the Power which it represents, and nearly one quarter of the population of the earth finds protection beneath its folds.

2. The Union Jack flies alike over the busy homeland,

the wide prairies of the Dominion of Canada, the torrid plains of India, the veld of South Africa, the spreading sheep farms of Australia, and the pastures of New Zealand, as well as over countless isles of the sea. Men have fought to make it glorious, and have died to shield it from dishonour. Every British boy and girl will desire not merely to keep the flag unsullied, but to blazon it still further with the record of noble deeds nobly done.

3. The Union Jack is well worth our careful examination, for it can teach us some important facts of British history. Each of the four nations which compose the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has its patron saint, who was supposed in olden days to be its special guardian. Thus, the patron saint of England is St. George. An old story tells us that, during the Crusades, St. George with other saints came to the succour of the English. Because of this special sign of favour he was adopted as the English patron saint. Shakespeare makes Henry the Fifth at the siege of Harfleur cry—

“The game’s afoot,  
Follow your spirit, and upon the charge  
Cry, ‘God for Harry, England, and St. George!’”

The cross of St. George—a red cross on a white ground—was worn as a badge over the armour by every English soldier in the fourteenth and following centuries. It also became the battle-flag of England.

4. Why St. Andrew should have been selected as the patron saint of Scotland is not very clear. Old stories tell us that the saint was crucified on an X-shaped cross, and



that this form of the cross appeared in the sky to a king of the Scots on the evening before a famous battle. He thereupon walked barefoot to the Church of St. Andrew, and vowed to adopt his cross as the national device.

5. The quaint old university town of St. Andrews is said to have been founded by one Regulus, a monk who was made guardian of the relics of St. Andrew. Regulus was warned in a dream that he must carry the relics to a distant land for safety. He went on board ship, and sailed on and on until his bark was driven ashore on the coast of Fife-shire. Where he landed, he built a church and dedicated it to St. Andrew. The flag of St. Andrew—the Scottish national flag—is a white X-shaped cross on a blue ground.

6. The patron saint of Wales is St. David, whom some of the old writers who tell us of his preaching and miracles consider to have been the uncle of the famous King Arthur. The story of St. Patrick, the special guardian of Ireland, is well known. He, at least, is well known to history, and his glory is that he introduced Christianity into Ireland. The Irish took as their flag a red X-shaped cross on a white ground. Wales is not represented on the Union Jack, and this is considered by many patriotic Welshmen as a slur upon their country.

7. Now the Union Jack, as we have it to-day, consists of the three crosses of England, Scotland, and Ireland, placed one above the other. Examine the Union Jack carefully, and you will see first and foremost the red cross of St. George, beneath it the white cross of St. Andrew, and lying on this cross the red cross of St. Patrick.

8. I want you to notice that the red cross of St. Patrick

is narrower than the white cross of St. Andrew, and that it is not placed in the middle of the white cross. Had the Irish cross been of the same width as the Scottish cross, the latter would have been covered up. Had the narrower Irish cross been placed in the middle of the Scottish cross, the white of St. Andrew would have been a mere edging to the red of St. Patrick. In either case, Scotsmen would have been offended at the slight placed upon them, so the heralds who designed the Union Jack made the cross of St. Patrick narrower than the cross of St. Andrew, and then broke the continuity of its arms, so that in each quarter of the flag the crosses of Ireland and Scotland might be clearly distinguished from each other.

9. Now, why is this flag called the Union Jack? Most people believe that it was so called from the word *Jacques*, the French for James. This James was the successor to Queen Elizabeth, who, as you know, was never married and had no children. When she died, the recognized heir to the English throne was the great-grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry the Seventh. According to Henry the Eighth's will the heir was Lord Beauchamp, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk, Henry's favourite sister. This person, however, was impossible, and Elizabeth on her death-bed named James as her successor.

10. James was, you will remember, the son of Mary Queen of Scots and Darnley. When Elizabeth died he had been King of Scotland for twenty-five years. He was crowned King of England in 1603, and thus Scotland and England came under the rule of one king. James took the title, "King of Great Britain," and was

amused at his own wit in pointing out that Albion, the old name for the island of Britain, really meant *All-be-one* !

11. When the crowns were united under the name of Great Britain a new flag was necessary. It was made by combining the flag of St. George with that of St. Andrew. By royal order, captains of ships were commanded to fly the new flag at the maintop, and either the Red Cross or the White Cross at the foretop, according as the ship belonged to England or Scotland. This royal order was sadly needed, for there was much dissatisfaction in Scotland with the new Union flag, in which "the Scottish cross was twice divided, and the English cross was drawn through the Scottish cross."

12. Despite dissatisfaction on both sides of the Border, the union of England and Scotland under one king was a very good thing for both nations. It enabled Englishmen and Scotsmen to know each other better, and thus did something to lessen the old hatred between the two peoples. No longer had the two countries to waste their money and strength in keeping up armies to fight against each other. No longer was Scotland the ally of France, ever ready to make England's embarrassment Scotland's opportunity.

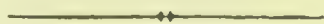
13. James boasted that he governed Scotland with his pen. This was true, but Scotland was not the orderly, peaceful land which these words would seem to imply. Blood feuds took place in the streets of Edinburgh as well as in lonely Border dales. Trials before judges were frequently little better than a mockery, especially when the parties were powerful and could bring armed men to



overawe the judges. On one occasion a judge was actually kidnapped and kept out of sight to prevent him from giving a decision against a certain suitor.

14. The great nobles were lawless and very quarrelsome, and James had hard work to keep them in order. With the might of England behind him he was able to overcome the nobles, and give his land that peace and even-handed justice which it lacked. The real union with Scotland—the union of the two Parliaments—did not take place until one hundred and four years later.

15. Ninety-two years after this the cross of St. Patrick was added to the united crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. In the year 1798 the Irish Parliament was abolished, the British Parliament became the sole law-making body for the three kingdoms, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland came into being. The cross of St. Patrick was added to the British flag, and thus we have the Union Jack, the best known and most effective flag in the world.



## 2. THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

1. To-day we will visit Hampton Court Palace, which stands on the north bank of the Thames, fifteen miles south-west of London. It is a grand building of warm, red brick, and it gives you an excellent idea on a large scale of the kind of country house which was built in all parts of England during the reigns of Henry the Eighth and Elizabeth. The palace was built by Cardinal Wolsey in 1526, and was presented by him to

Henry the Eighth, whose son, afterwards Edward the Sixth, was born in it.

2. Now why have I brought you to see this famous old place? Because in Hampton Court Palace an event took place which forms an epoch in the history of our empire-building. You know that under Elizabeth the Church of England became Protestant. The old form of worship was largely changed, and some of the old doctrines were thrown aside. Many persons, however, did not think that the Church had become Protestant enough. They wanted to make the worship still more simple, and to *purify* the Church still further. These persons were known as Puritans.

3. When James the Sixth of Scotland became James the First of England, the Puritans hoped that the new king would remodel the Church according to their ideas. You already know that James had been brought up in Scotland, where the Church had been much more thoroughly reformed than in England. Bishops had been abolished north of the Border, and the rulers of the Church were now the *presbyters*—that is, the ministers and the “elders,” or chosen men of each congregation. For this reason the government of the Scottish Church is known as Presbyterian.

4. Now James had declared the Presbyterian Church to be “the purest in the world,” though he had attacked the Puritans in Scotland. The English Puritans, however, believed that he would favour them. They met him on his way to London, and asked him to make certain changes in the Prayer Book and in the form of public worship, and from their reception they fully expected that he would do so.

5. A few months later James summoned a conference of

bishops and leading Puritans to meet at Hampton Court in order to discuss Church questions. The king presided in person, but very soon the Puritans discovered that James had left all his Puritanism behind him in Scotland. He took the part of the bishops, and spoke very slightly of Presbyterianism. "No bishop, no king," was his cry. The whole conference was a farce, in which the king was the chief actor. At last he shuffled out of the room, declaring



ENTRANCE GATE, HAMPTON COURT.

that he would make the Puritans worship according to the forms of the Church, or he would "harry them out of the land altogether."

6. The king kept his word. Harsh laws were made to prevent the Puritans from holding meetings for worship, and numbers of them were fined and imprisoned for attending their services. They soon saw that there was no peace for them in England. Some of them fled to Holland, where they were free to worship in their own way. These exiles



settled at Leyden as an English colony. They were hard-working, well-behaved people, and soon won the respect of the Dutch. Before long they had built their own meeting-house and a number of cottages for their poorer members.

7. For eleven years they lived together in great harmony, and then they were faced with an important question. Their children had grown up, and they had now to decide whether or not the new generation was to forget its native land and its native speech and to become Dutch. England had treated the exiles cruelly, but some of them still loved her, and were ready to suffer great hardships rather than let their children grow up as foreigners.

8. Now, the only land in which the Puritans could worship freely and at the same time live as Englishmen was America, the vast new continent beyond the Atlantic Ocean. A colony had already been founded in what was known as Virginia, so named after Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. To America, then, the Puritans turned their attention, and after long delays they formed a company, and obtained permission to settle in New England, which lay to the north of the colony already founded.

9. The *Speedwell*, a little vessel of sixty tons, was bought in Holland, and a larger ship of one hundred and eighty tons, known as the *Mayflower*, was purchased in London. On July 22, 1620, the *Speedwell*, laden with the pilgrims, left Delft Haven, bound for Southampton. The frontispiece of this book represents the scene. At Southampton some friends from London joined them in the *Mayflower*. The expedition set sail for America on August 5; but before

long the *Speedwell* proved unseaworthy, and the two ships had to put back to Plymouth, where twenty faint-hearted persons left the company.

10. On September 6 the *Mayflower*, with one hundred passengers, set sail once more. The weather was very rough, and for nine long weeks the little ship battled against the Atlantic gales. At length the sandy shores of Cape Cod came in sight. The land of promise lay to the south of this cape, but in attempting to reach it the *Mayflower* had to fight against head winds, and could make no progress. She therefore took shelter in a harbour off Cape Cod Bay.

11. On November 21 a meeting was held in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, and the pilgrims agreed to go no farther, but to settle down on the shores of Cape Cod Bay. For five weeks Captain Standish and a crew explored the coast, and at last entered the harbour of Plymouth, which John Smith had previously discovered and noted on his map. A few days later the *Mayflower* was safely moored in the harbour, and on December 21 the pilgrims stepped ashore.

12. The coast was bleak and barren, and the weather very cold. The shore was so shallow that they had to wade from their boats through ice-cold water. At once the work of founding a settlement was begun. It was called Plymouth, after the name of the last English town which the pilgrims had seen. If you were to visit the American Plymouth, you would be shown with great pride the very granite boulder on which the pilgrims first set foot in America.

13. I need not tell you of the hardships which these

noble men and women suffered. Storm and tempest, hunger and cold, sickness and death raged among them, but they never lost heart. Before spring fifty-one of the colonists had died. Even in the third year of the settlement the pilgrims had to face starvation. "They knew not at night where to have a bit in the morning." At one time each family had to subsist on a small measure of corn, which, when distributed to the members of the household, gave only a few grains a day to each! Three bitter years passed, and then better days dawned. New batches of pilgrims began to join them. Between the years 1629 and 1640 no less than twenty thousand Puritans left England for America.

14. The men and women who left England to pioneer in the wilderness were God-fearing and pious, strong and enduring, staid and serious in all their thoughts, words, and works. They loved the land that bore them, but they loved their own freedom better, and they gave up home and kindred for it. Every year the number of colonists in New England, Virginia, and other colonies on the Atlantic coast increased, until there was a strong and prosperous white nation along the seaboard of North America.

15. One hundred and fifty-five years after the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers a great struggle for freedom took place. The British Parliament tried to tax the Americans without allowing them to have representatives in the House of Commons. The colonists took up arms in defence of their rights: the British were defeated, and the Americans set up the great United States of America.





### 3. THE TORN PAGES.

1. To-day we will pay a visit to the Library of the House of Commons. We find that it is a handsome room splendidly stocked with books; but we have not come to refer to them. The object of our quest is a journal of the House of Commons for the year 1621. It lies open on a glass-topped table, and if we look closely at it we shall notice that some pages have been violently torn from the book. The story of these torn pages introduces us to that great conflict between King and Commons which led finally to the ruin of the House of Stuart.

2. In order to understand how these pages came to be torn out, we must study the Parliamentary history of the reign of James the First, the first Stuart king. He had not been long on the throne before he put forward two very foolish claims, by which he hoped to override the nation's will and make himself even more absolute than the Tudors had been.



### The Royal Standard and the Union Jack.

1. The flag of St. George. 2. Royal Standard. 3. The White Ensign. 4. The Blue Ensign. 5. The Union Jack. 6. The Red Ensign. 7. The Admiralty Flag. 8. The first Union Jack, 1606 (combination of crosses of St. George and St. Andrew). 9. The second Union Jack (with cross of St. Patrick added).

3. The first of these claims was what is called "the divine right of kings." Monarchs, said James, were appointed by Almighty God, and were responsible to Him alone, and therefore it was sinful of their subjects to oppose them whatever they did. Kings had, according to James, a divine right to do wrong. He had already advanced this doctrine in a book which he had written and issued in Scotland; and though there was no lack of time-serving courtiers and bishops in England to echo and enforce it, the great mass of Englishmen thought it utterly absurd, and never could be persuaded to agree with it.

4. The second claim arose out of the first. As the king was only responsible to God, the laws of the land were merely grants which the king had made to his people, and therefore the present holder of the office might withdraw or suspend them at his pleasure. Any law to which the king agreed was only a statement of his present intentions; it was not binding upon him for the future, and his people had no right to force him to observe it.

5. When Englishmen began to see that the king was really acting up to this strange doctrine, they saw clearly that unless they opposed him all the freedom which they believed to be their birthright would soon be nothing but a vain shadow, and that they would simply be slaves of the Crown. James was obstinate and the people were determined, and a conflict soon took place. In the reign of Charles the First, who inherited his father's beliefs, this conflict grew into a terrible civil war, in the course of which the king lost his head.

6. James knew that the Tudors had been despots, but he



did not perceive that they had been very wary in their despotism. Henry the Eighth had made much of his Parliaments, and had persuaded rather than forced them to do his bidding. Elizabeth was also a despot, but she was extremely popular with the nation ; and though Parliament grew restive towards the end of her reign, Englishmen really believed her when she said that "as she had ever held her people's good most dear, so the last day of her life should witness it." But James insisted on being openly recognized as the absolute master of the nation. He could not read the signs of the times, nor did he understand the temper of the people : the day of absolute kings had gone by for ever.

7. James had come from a land in which Parliament was of little or no account. Four years after his accession to the English throne he could truthfully say, "Here I sit and govern Scotland with my pen ; I write, and it is done, and by a clerk of the council I govern Scotland now." He soon found to his cost that England was not to be so ruled. The English Parliament was beginning to understand its strength. "The slavish Parliament of Henry the Eighth grew into the murmuring Parliament of Queen Elizabeth, the mutinous Parliament of James the First, and the rebellious Parliament of Charles the First."

8. Even on his way to London James had broken the law : he had hanged an offender without a trial. In summoning his first Parliament he went a step further, and aimed a blow at the independence of the House of Commons by telling the people the kind of men they should elect. He also ordered the names of the new members to

be sent to his judges, who were to decide whether or not they were properly elected. Now, the House of Commons has always been most jealous of its right to judge for itself in all matters connected with Parliamentary elections. You can easily imagine how angry the newly-elected members would be at this attempt to rob them of their rights and privileges.

9. Before long James issued a number of proclamations which not only altered the law, but gave sole rights to certain persons to make and sell various articles. Of course, the lucky people who obtained these sole rights could charge what they pleased for their goods, and the public at large could only grumble and pay. Parliament complained bitterly of the king's action in granting these "monopolies."

10. The question of taxation, too, was a sore point between the king and the Parliament. Almost the only hold which Parliament had over the king was the right of refusing to grant him money unless he did away with the grievances of which it complained. You must always remember that British liberty has been won by "the power of the purse."

11. Parliament knew that if the king could get supplies without its consent, he would be able to govern just as he pleased. James knew this equally well, and he soon set about discovering a method of getting money without asking Parliament for it. Parliament in its first session had granted the king the customs for life—that is, he was to have tunnage and poundage, which means a fixed grant of so much on every "tun" of wine, and one shilling on every pound sterling value in the case of certain other imported

goods. Without the slightest reference to Parliament, James raised the duties on imported goods, and made such things as tobacco and currants, which had never before been taxed, pay a duty.

12. John Bate refused to pay, but when his case came to court, the judges, deciding the question according to strict law, gave judgment for the Crown. The case being decided, James at once increased his income from tunnage and poundage by £70,000 a year. The Commons loudly objected, and thinking men all over the land began to ask themselves how the nation was to control the king if it lost the sole power of granting the taxes.

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#### 4. KING AND PARLIAMENT.

1. In the year 1610 Parliament made a great effort to settle its quarrel with the king. It was willing to pay him a large sum of money if he would give up what he called his right to increase the duties on imported goods, together with certain ancient dues which had come down to him from feudal times. The whole plan, however, fell through, and Parliament was dissolved.

2. A second Parliament was summoned in 1614, but it was just as stubborn as the first. When James asked for money, Parliament refused it, unless he agreed to give up the powers of taxation which were in dispute during the former Parliament. Not a single new law did this Parliament hatch out, and therefore it received the name of the "Addled Parliament." After it was dissolved



James did without a Parliament for seven years. Trade was good, and the duties on imported goods gave him sufficient money for a time of peace.

3. In 1618, however, a war broke out with Germany, and James was obliged to ask the nation for the money with which to carry it on. The war came about in this way. James had married his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, Count Palatine of the Rhine, the head of the Protestant party in Germany. The Bohemians drove out their Catholic emperor, and offered the crown to Frederick, who accepted it against his father-in-law's advice. The Catholic powers saw clearly that if Frederick were to hold both his large district on the Rhine and Bohemia as well, the Protestants would become very powerful in Europe. They therefore took up arms against him. The troops of the Emperor swept into the Palatinate, and their allies marched into Bohemia and forced Frederick to battle before the walls of Prague. He was hopelessly defeated, and had to fly for his life. Thus began the long struggle known as the "Thirty Years' War."

4. Before two years were over Elizabeth, her husband, and her children were homeless wanderers. James, who was now under the thumb of a clever Spanish ambassador, was eager to marry his son Charles to the King of Spain's daughter, and thus secure the support of that powerful kingdom. He had already sacrificed Raleigh in the hope of winning the King of Spain's consent, and now he was ready to sacrifice his son-in-law if need be. He professed a great love for peace, and wished to remain neutral; but Parliament and people were eager for a war with the old enemy, and were keenly anxious to help the Protestant

prince against the Catholic monarch. The proposed Spanish marriage was most unpopular, and with the country in this frame of mind the new Parliament assembled.

5. Parliament gave the king a grant of £160,000, instead of the half million which he demanded, and then proceeded to attack the monopolies and to order the trial of the king's ministers for mismanaging the affairs of the State. Next, it asked that the old laws against Catholics should be more strictly enforced, and that Prince Charles should forthwith be married to a Protestant princess. James was very angry, and told the House of Commons plainly that it had no right to meddle with such matters at all. Further, he said very bluntly that any privileges which they thought they possessed were simply derived from his "grace and favour," and were not real rights at all.

6. The Commons now determined to make a great stand against the king. They passed a resolution to the effect that the liberties and privileges of Parliament are "the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England," and that Parliament has a right to discuss every matter concerning the State, the defence of the realm, the Church of England, the making of laws and the redress of grievances, and to give advice to the king. You now see that the Commons of 1621 were making the same fight as their forefathers. They were the successors to the barons and clergy of 1215, who forced Magna Charta from King John, and to those of 1258, who took the government out of the hands of Henry the Third.

7. The protest was entered in the journals of the House, and it is still written on the minds and hearts of all

Britons. When James returned from Newmarket and heard the news his anger knew no bounds. He sent for the journals of the House, and with his own royal hand tore out the offending pages ! As you look upon the mutilated book in the House of Commons library, you ought to be grateful for the stout hearts and strong wills of the men who made this bold stand for the rights which we enjoy to-day.

8. A few words will suffice to sum up the remainder of James's inglorious reign. He dissolved Parliament, and tried once more to rule as an absolute king. In the same year Prince Charles, accompanied by the Duke of Buckingham, started off in disguise to Madrid to woo the Infanta of Spain. On the way he stayed a day or two at the Court in Paris, and there saw the young lady who was afterwards to become his queen. Then he pushed on to Madrid, where he saw the Infanta. Though he professed to be enchanted with her, his heart was really in Paris. Buckingham quarrelled with the Spanish minister, and a pretended message from home afforded the prince an excuse for saying " Good-bye " to the Spanish princess.

9. Three years later, to the great joy of the nation, the Spanish marriage was broken off, and James, in spite of all his boasted statecraft, was forced to declare war against Spain. Parliament met, and voted liberal supplies for an army to be sent to Germany, and James, now old and feeble, was obliged to consult it as to how the war should be conducted. This was a great triumph for Parliament, for it had now gained the control of foreign affairs, which were formerly managed solely by the king.





## 5. WESTMINSTER HALL.—I.

1. To-day we will visit one of the three great historic buildings of London. The oldest of these ancient buildings, as you probably know, is Westminster Abbey, which was founded by Edward the Confessor. Next in order of antiquity is the Tower, which might well be called a volume of English history bound in stone. The youngest of London's great historic buildings is Westminster Hall, which we are now about to visit.

2. We make our way to the Houses of Parliament, and crossing New Palace Yard, find ourselves at the door of the Hall. Directly we enter, we are struck with its vastness. With the exception of some of our great railway stations, it is the largest hall in the world with its roof unsupported by

pillars. Its length is not far short of one hundred yards, its breadth exceeds twenty-two yards, and its height thirty yards. Look up. Nowhere in the world will you find such a grand oaken roof. It is a very triumph of carpenter's work, and has lasted, with some renovation from time to time, for more than five hundred years.

3. William Rufus built the original hall thirty-one years after his father wrested the English throne from Harold, and his successors enlarged it and beautified it. It was rebuilt in the reign of Richard the Second, and the great oak roof dates from his day. From the time of Rufus to the time of Victoria it was the seat of the highest courts of justice. Law courts were built round it in early times, and trials were held in them until the year 1884, when the royal courts in the Strand were ready for occupation. Now it is used only for banquets or meetings on great State occasions.

4. No place in England has so many interesting historical memories. These ancient walls saw the trial of William Wallace, the great Scottish patriot; the deposition of Richard the Second, the king who rebuilt them; and the condemnation of Lord Cobham, the leader of the Lollards. Between the years 1605 and 1648 three other important state trials took place in Westminster Hall.

5. The first of these trials sent to the rack and the scaffold Guy Fawkes, the most active agent in the reckless conspiracy known as the Gunpowder Plot, which was formed by a few Catholics who were deeply disappointed because James the First refused to remit the severe laws enforced against them. Fawkes was seized in the vaults beneath the House of Lords, where he was preparing to

blow up James and his Parliament at the opening ceremony on November 5, 1605. The plot, which was revealed beforehand, came to nothing, and most of the conspirators were executed. The annual searching of the vaults below the Houses of Parliament prior to the opening of the session, and the burning of effigies of Guy Fawkes on November 5 in each year, still remind us of the popular panic caused by the plot.

6. The second trial resulted in the execution of Strafford, the hated minister of Charles the First. The third was the most striking of all—the trial of the king himself, on the charge of levying war against his people. A tablet on the floor of the hall marks the very spot upon which King Charles stood during his trial.

7. The story of Charles's life is the climax of the great struggle between King and Parliament which began in his father's reign. It was fought out in the council chamber, at the sword's point and the cannon's mouth, and the quarrel turned on this important question, Who shall rule—King or Parliament? In a former lesson I told you that Charles inherited his father's beliefs in the doctrine of the Divine right and the absolute power of kings. He pushed these doctrines to the utmost extreme, and in doing so ruined himself and plunged the nation into civil war. Charles was a far better man than his father, but he was faithless by nature and fond of dark and crooked ways. He was firmly convinced that between him and his subjects there could be no agreement which would bind him, and that whether he kept a promise or broke it was a matter for him to decide, and for him alone.



8. Now Charles was not clever enough to understand the great changes which were going on around him. He did not perceive that the time had gone by when men would allow the king to be a tyrant, and permit him to override both the law and the will of the people. With the help of his minister Strafford—"the very genius of tyranny"—he ruled for eleven years without a Parliament, and maddened the nation by all sorts of schemes to exact money from them.

9. The Star Chamber, which, you will remember, was at first a court to which the oppressed might appeal, became the great engine of his tyranny. Men who opposed or offended the king were punished by being scourged, branded on the cheek, having their ears lopped off, or being imprisoned for life. This cruel treatment turned many people against him, who otherwise would have been his friends.

10. Charles hated the Puritans, who were rapidly becoming a powerful party in the State, and under Archbishop Laud the courts were very busy in trying to crush them. A lady who lived at the time says: "Such as could not flee were tormented in the bishops' courts, fined, whipped, pilloried, imprisoned, and suffered to enjoy no rest, so that death was better than life to them; and notwithstanding their patient sufferance of all these things, yet was not the king satisfied till the whole land were reduced to perfect slavery."

11. Then, again, Charles had married a French princess, who had a great influence over him. For her sake he also showed favour to the Roman Catholics, and this helped to increase the anger of the people, who bitterly

hated the old faith and all its ways. At length a large body of the most earnest men in the State saw that, unless the king was curbed, all freedom would be banished from the land. You read in Book III. how John Hampden refused to pay the illegal ship-money, and after a trial which made him "the argument of all tongues," lost his case. Hampden's resistance thrilled England, and in the midst of the excitement grave news arrived from Scotland.

12. The patience of the Scots had at last broken down. At this time Laud was trying to make them use a new Book of Common Prayer, drawn up on the English model. When the Dean of St. Giles, the cathedral of Edinburgh, began to read the new service, it is said that a woman named Jenny Geddes flung her stool at his head and cried, "Will you say the mass in my lug [ear]?" This was the signal for a great riot. The Scots were roused, and they swore to resist Laud's tyranny to the death. You may still see in the churchyard of Greyfriars, Edinburgh, the tombstone on which thousands of persons of all ranks signed the National Covenant. "Such was the zeal of the subscribers that many subscribed with tears on their cheeks. Some are said to have drawn their own blood and used it in place of ink to underwrite their names."

13. The king was furious, and said he would rather die than yield to the Scottish demands. He prepared an army to put down the Scots, who lost no time in gathering together twenty thousand men, and placing over them officers of great experience. The English troops were very unwilling to fight, for many of them thought that the Scots

were in the right. Charles found himself with unwilling soldiers and an empty treasury, and in this plight he was forced to make terms with the Scots and to summon a new Parliament. The men who came to it were bitter opponents of the king. They were determined to grant no supplies unless their grievances were redressed. Charles could wring no money from this Parliament, and in three weeks he dismissed it.

14. The Scots then invaded Northumberland, defeated the royal army in a skirmish near Newcastle, and fixed their headquarters in that city. The king was in despair, and again he was forced to call a Parliament—the famous Long Parliament, which was not finally dissolved until twenty years later. This Parliament was full of men determined to remove all grievances, and “pull up the causes of them by the roots.” Strafford was brought to trial, and a month later Laud was sentenced to death. You already know that Charles left them to their fate, and that they both perished on the scaffold.

15. The Long Parliament then abolished the Star Chamber and the courts which Laud had set up, and began to call attention to the illegal methods by which Charles had raised money. It also made the judges secure in their posts, and took away from the king the right to remove them if they did not please him. So far so good. But the Parliament now tried to remodel the Church by abolishing the bishops, and this caused a number of members to grow lukewarm, and to go over to the side of the king. At this Charles plucked up spirit, and went to Scotland, where he tried to win back the goodwill of the Scots.



## 6. WESTMINSTER HALL.—II.

1. While Charles was in Scotland a terrible rising took place in Ireland. The native Irish attacked the Protestant English colonists, and slaughtered five thousand of them in cold blood. The leader of the Irish showed a letter which he said Charles had sent him, giving him permission to carry out this cruel work. The letter had the royal seal of Scotland attached to it, and looked genuine, but it was really a forgery. Nevertheless, the English Puritans, who were now ready to think the worst of Charles, believed firmly that he had ordered the massacre.

2. When Parliament reassembled, the Puritan leaders drew up a long document of two hundred and four articles, setting forth all the illegal acts which Charles had done. This "Grand Remonstrance" ended with a list of reforms which they intended to carry out. Many members of Parliament, though they hated the tyranny of Charles, were not ready for such large changes as the Remonstrance set forth, and declared that they would rather trust the king than the Puritans. Charles had now a powerful party at his back, but, just at the moment when he might have won back his power by being wise and tactful, he did an act which made war inevitable.

3. His wife urged him to go to Parliament and seize the five great Puritan leaders. "Pull the rascals out by the ears," she said, and Charles tried to do so. I told you in Book III. how the king came down to Westminster at the head of four hundred or five hundred men, and entered the

House, only to discover that "the birds had flown." The five members had escaped to the city, and the king was foiled. He left the House amidst low mutterings of fierce discontent and loud cries of "Privilege ! Privilege !" The London militia rose in arms to protect the members, and both sides prepared to fight. The immediate measure which brought about war was a Bill placing the control of the militia, the only armed forces of the State, in the hands of the Parliament. The king's refusal to pass this Bill led by rapid stages to the civil war.

4. Charles sent his wife to Holland, with the crown jewels and all the money he could collect, in order to buy arms, powder, and shot. In April 1642 the king called upon Sir John Hotham, governor of Hull, to admit him into the town, and to give up the magazine of arms and gunpowder which it contained. Hotham shut the gates in the face of the king's troops, and said that he would only take orders from Parliament. On the stormy evening of August 22 the king raised his standard at Nottingham, and the great civil war began.

5. I do not propose to tell you the story of those miserable years, during which father fought against son, and brother against brother. We will hurry on to that fatal June day in the year 1645, when Cromwell's "new model" army scattered the Cavaliers like chaff before the wind on the field of Naseby. In the May of the next year Charles in despair rode to the camp of the Scots at Newark, and gave himself up to them. The Scots were glad to have him, and were ready to restore him to his throne if he would promise to support Presbyterianism in Scotland and make

the Church of England a Presbyterian Church. Charles refused, and the Scots gave him up to the English Parliament.

6. The English Parliament was now split up into two sections—the Presbyterians, who, as you already know, wished to do away with the bishops, and the Independents, who wished to have no State Church at all. The Presbyterians were the stronger party, and they had the custody of the king. They now offered to set him on his throne again if he would give up all claim to control the militia, the fleet, and the levying of taxation for twenty years, and if he would make the Church of England Presbyterian, and persecute the Roman Catholics.

7. Now, Charles had sworn that he would never sacrifice his crown, or his Church, even to save his life, and he kept his word. For months, however, he would not give a straightforward answer, but tried all sorts of tricks to gain time. He knew that Parliament was very divided, and he hoped that while the members were quarrelling amongst themselves he might regain his throne.

8. The Presbyterians feared the army, which was mainly composed of Independents, and Parliament now ordered the greater part of the forces to be dismissed. The leaders of the army refused to allow it to be disbanded, and a party of five hundred men rode to Holmby House in Northamptonshire, where the king was then living, and seized him. Now that the army had got the king into its hands, it marched on London, and owing to the flight of a number of Presbyterian members of Parliament the Independents found themselves in a majority.



9. They then proceeded to offer the king terms which he might easily have accepted, but he was still hopeful of winning his throne by the help of his friends and the Scots, and in an evil hour he refused. He managed to escape to the Isle of Wight, and took refuge in Carisbrooke Castle, from which place he sent terms both to the army and to Parliament. He really had no intention of making terms with either of them. He was only trying to gain time for his supporters to take the field once more.

10. In Scotland the Royalists had gained the upper hand, and in April they raised the royal standard and crossed the Border. Immediately the Royalists in England took up arms. The second civil war had begun, but it was soon to end. In less than three months Fairfax and Cromwell had hopelessly crushed the royal forces, and the king's doom was sealed. The army was now bitterly angry, and began to call for the death of Charles, "the man of blood." Parliament, however, was still willing to make terms with the king, but the army would have none of it. An officer named Pride marched his men to the House of Commons, and drove away the Presbyterian members, leaving only sixty Independents, who were known as "the Rump." On January 18, 1649, this Rump passed a Bill for bringing the king to trial, and appointed a High Court of Justice for the purpose.

11. Now let us try to realize the scene in Westminster Hall on the 20th day of January in the year 1649. The Hall is crowded with stern men, and the doors are guarded by Ironsides. Outside the mob is shouting, "Justice! Justice!" Bradshaw, the lawyer who has been appointed

president of the court, takes his seat, and the names of the judges are read over. Out of one hundred and thirty-five, only sixty-nine answer to their names. Then the president rises and orders the sergeant to bring in the prisoner.

12. There is a deep hush, and the king enters between a guard of armed men. The members of the court, with their hats on their heads, remain seated in their places. The king also remains covered, and as he takes his seat he looks upon his judges with silent contempt. The clerk reads the charge, and when Charles hears himself described as a tyrant and traitor he laughs in the face of the court.

13. Usually the king hesitates in his speech, but to-day he is very fluent. He refuses to plead before such a court. He tells his judges that they have no right to try a king of England, and that they are an illegal meeting, appointed by the mere remnant of the House of Commons. Again and again he declares that they have no authority to sit in judgment on him, and at length the meeting is adjourned till next day. On that day and the next he makes the same protest.

14. Meanwhile, the crowd outside is beginning to show sympathy for the royal prisoner, and cries of "God save the King!" are heard. On the 24th and the 25th the judges hear evidence to prove the charge that the king has levied war against his subjects, and then the court withdraws to consider its verdict.

15. On the 27th, Bradshaw comes into court wearing a red robe in place of the customary black, and the king grows pale at the sight, for he knows that it means sentence of death. The president delivers a long and solemn speech to the king, the clerk reads the sentence, and the judges



Charles I. leaving Westminster Hall after his Trial.

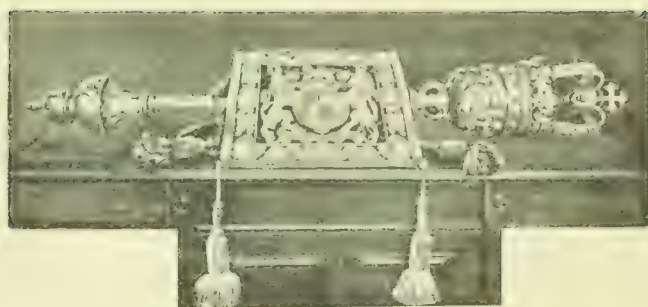
*Painted by Peter Paul Rubens, 1659. Original in the collection of the Earl of Arundel, now in the collection of the Earl of Arundel, now in the collection of the Earl of Arundel, now in the collection of the Earl of Arundel.*



stand in their places to signify their assent. The king tries to speak, but, being considered dead in law, is not allowed to do so. He is led away, and as he leaves the Hall he is greeted with cries of enmity and of good-will. As he passes, a soldier cries, "God bless you, sir," and immediately receives a buffet on the mouth from his officer. "Methinks," says the king, "the punishment exceeds the offence."

16. The condemned man is lodged in St. James's Palace, where he is allowed to take a last fond farewell of two of his children, the Princess Elizabeth and the little Duke of Gloucester. Then he spends the short remaining time in earnest prayer with his good friend Bishop Juxon. On the morning of the 30th of January he is led by armed men through the leafless avenues of St. James's Park to his palace of Whitehall, before which a scaffold draped with black has been erected. All marvel at the calm dignity which the king displays. "He nothing common did, or mean, upon that memorable scene."

17. The scaffold is hedged round with soldiers, and the headsman stands beside the block. The king makes a short speech to the people. He bids them remember that he dies a victim to the "power of the sword," that the nation is now the slave of the army, and that it will never be free again until it remembers its duty to its God and its king. He suffers death, he says, because he will not yield up the Church and the State to the army. Finally, he declares that he dies a Christian and a member of the Church of England. He lays his head upon the block with unflinching courage, the axe falls, and a deep groan goes up from the people.



### 7. THE MACE.—I.

1. To-day we will revisit the House of Commons. A kindly member of Parliament obtains permission for us to enter the inner lobby, and there we arrive at about twenty minutes to three in the afternoon. Soon we see a procession approaching, and as it draws near a policeman shouts, "Hats off, strangers. Mr. Speaker!" We remove our hats, and watch with great interest the procession filing by.

2. First comes a messenger wearing his gold badge of office, then the sergeant-at-arms in Court dress, with sword and silver-buckled shoes, escorting an official who carries on his shoulder a great gold staff with a heavy head shaped like a crown. This is the mace, the symbol of the authority of the House of Commons. Behind the sergeant-at-arms walks the Speaker, in full Court dress and wearing his full-bottomed wig and long silk robe, the train of which is borne by an official. Behind Mr. Speaker and his train-bearer comes the chaplain in gown and hood.

3. The little procession passes into the House of Commons. The Speaker takes his seat, and the chaplain reads prayers, after which the business of the day begins. What has become of the mace? It has been placed in the rests

provided for it on the table. As long as the House of Commons sits as the House of Commons, the mace lies on the table. When the House of Commons "goes into Committee"—that is, when it meets to discuss the details of Bills, as the new laws proposed to be made are called—the mace is placed under the table.

4. Now, the mace which you see before you is the third which the House of Commons has possessed. The first mace disappeared after the execution of Charles the First, and has never been traced. A new mace was then made, and this in turn disappeared after the very striking incident which will be related in the next lesson.

5. In the last lesson I told you the story of the trial and execution of King Charles. You remember that the king on the scaffold said that he died a victim to the "power of the sword," and that the nation was now slave to the army. This was quite true. The army was supreme, and immediately after the king's death it set up a republic or "Commonwealth." The House of Lords was abolished, but the "Rump" of the Long Parliament still remained. It consisted only of Independents, and its authority was entirely derived from the army.

6. The news of the king's death at the hands of his subjects aroused great anger abroad and much grief amongst the Royalists at home. Ten days after his death, a book called "Eikon Basilike," or the "True Portrait" of the king, was published. It was said to be the private journal of Charles, and it represented him as a most saintly person—perfect man and perfect king. In spite of all the attempts of Parliament to suppress the book, it circulated everywhere,



and was read with sobs and tears. The book was a fraud and a dull and worthless piece of literature. Nevertheless, its effect was startling, and men who formerly had not favoured Charles now began to speak of him openly as "the martyr." John Milton, the great Puritan poet, wrote an answer to it; but even his splendid ability could not stem the tide of sympathy for the dead king.

7. In Scotland and Ireland the people defied the authority of the Commonwealth, and in the army itself there was a serious mutiny. Cromwell, however, was equal to all the demands made upon him. He burst upon the mutinous regiments at midnight and stamped out the revolt in a few hours. Prince Charles, the son of Charles the First, had already been proclaimed king in Scotland, and an embassy had been sent to Holland to invite him to ascend the throne. In Ireland the Parliamentary forces had been overcome, and only Dublin remained in their hands. A Dutch war was also threatening.

8. In 1649 Cromwell crossed over to Ireland with an army burning to revenge the massacres of 1641-1642. His buff-coated soldiers were for the most part strongly religious men, who believed they were chosen by the Almighty for carrying out His work. They rode to battle with psalms on their lips; they were absolutely fearless and utterly pitiless. In Ireland they stormed town after town, and slew the garrisons almost to a man.

9. Such terror was struck into the people that they made but little resistance. Thousands perished by famine and the sword, and shiploads of people were sent over the seas as slaves to the West Indies. More than forty thou-

sand Irish soldiers enlisted in the armies of France and Spain. Cromwell left behind him in Ireland a bitter hatred of his name. Long afterwards the Irish peasant used to call down the "curse of Cromwell" on an offending person.

10. Cromwell was determined that the Irish should never have a chance to rise again. Most of the leaders of the revolt were executed, and a plan was made for removing the Irish from the fruitful provinces of Ulster, Leinster, and Munster into the stern and barren country of Connaught. An order was issued that the Irish were to move to the west by May 1, 1654, and that those who did not obey were to be executed. Terrible suffering was caused by this decree, which, however, was not fully put into force.

11. Then followed the "Cromwellian settlement." The army and those adventurers who had lent money for the war drew lots for the land which they were to occupy in the three provinces. Then the men of the regiments drew lots for their farms. Years were occupied in settling the land in this way, for the Irish landowners could not be completely cleared out. In the course of time the settlers began to mingle with the Irish and to marry their daughters. Thus even the stern Ironsides became Irish as the years passed by.

12. Very harsh laws were made against the priests, but though they were hunted down they did not altogether disappear. The Irish were resolved to keep alive their religion, so the priests remained amongst them, hiding in secret chambers and wild places, or wearing disguises and performing the offices of their Church wherever their poor flocks could gather in safety.

13. Cromwell entered London amidst the shouts of the populace, but his days of warfare were not yet over. Prince Charles had already landed in Scotland, had sworn to support Presbyterianism, and was now at the head of an army. Cromwell pushed northward and entered Scotland in July 1650. A large Scottish force, under a veteran general named David Leslie, lay between Edinburgh and Leith, and Cromwell, unable to get provisions for his army, had to fall back on Dunbar, where his fleet lay.

14. Leslie followed him, occupied the hills above the town, and blocked the roads southward, thus cutting off the English retreat along the coast. Leslie was in a very strong position, and Cromwell was in a desperate plight. The Commonwealth troops were sick and starving, and the Lord-General had decided to put them on board the ships at nightfall. However, as dusk approached, a movement was seen in the Scottish camp. To the astonishment of Cromwell, the Scottish horse began to move down from the hills to the plain, whereupon he cried, "The Lord hath delivered them into our hand."

15. Just as the sun rose over the sea, Cromwell flung his Ironsides at the Scottish cavalry, who made a brief but desperate resistance, and then broke and fled, throwing the foot-soldiers who were hurrying to their assistance into confusion. The battle was all over in an hour, and Cromwell left three thousand of the enemy dead on the field, his own loss being small. Ten thousand prisoners, and all the Scottish baggage and the guns were taken. The defeat was a rout. Shortly afterwards Cromwell entered Edinburgh, and began the work of conquering the Lowlands.



## 8. THE MACE.—II.

1. Early in the new year Cromwell won his way to Perth, and there discovered that Prince Charles, with another Scottish army, had slipped past him and had entered England, trusting that the men of Lancashire and Wales would flock to his standard. Cromwell turned and hastened south with all speed, and caught the invaders at Worcester. Once more his Ironsides won the day, and Prince Charles was a fugitive. I told you in Book I. the story of his perilous wanderings and of his escape to France.

2. The king being dead and his son defeated, Cromwell was now supreme, but as yet he was nothing more than commander of the army. The "Rump" still sat, but Cromwell and the army wished it to dissolve as soon as possible, and allow a new Parliament to be elected. The "Rump," however, was anxious to continue in power, and it brought in a Bill to enable the sitting members to retain their seats. Here we reach the story of the mace.

3. Look at the picture on page 46. It represents the interior of the House of Commons, with the "Rump" sitting. The date is April 20, 1653. The central figure is Cromwell; to his left are his soldiers armed with sword and spear. He has determined to put an end to the "Rump," and the picture represents him doing so. When he came down to the House of Commons, he left a number of armed men outside the door, and took his seat as a private member. Presently he arose and spoke his mind freely. He told the members that they were a set of worthless talkers, with no zeal for religion or reform. "But your hour hath come,"



"TAKE AWAY THAT BAUBLE!"  
(From the picture by Benjamin West, P.R.A.)

he cried ; “ the Lord hath done with you. I will put an end to your prating. It is not fit that you should sit here any longer. You should give place to better men. You are no Parliament.”

4. Then he put on his hat, strode to the table, and stamped on the floor. Instantly thirty of his soldiers entered and drove out the members. The Speaker refused to leave the chair, and tried to speak. His voice was drowned in the uproar. Then one of Cromwell’s friends offered to lend him a hand to come down, and the Speaker yielding to force did so. Pointing to the mace, Cromwell said, “ What shall we do with this bauble ? Here, take it away,” and a soldier removed it. Then he locked the door and strode away with the key in his pocket. Thus amidst a scene of violence ended the rule of the Long Parliament, which had sat for thirteen years.

5. Six weeks later another House was summoned by Cromwell in his own name and by his own authority. It was known as “ Barebones ” Parliament, from the name of a member, a London merchant, who, according to the Puritan fashion of the time, was called Praise-God Barbone. This Parliament was composed of men who wished to overturn everything in the State. Cromwell accused them of trying to substitute the law of Moses for the law of England. The members quarrelled fiercely among themselves, and at last gave up to the Lord-General the powers they had received from him. A council of officers drew up a new constitution and requested Cromwell to become Lord Protector, with rights and duties which differed very little from those of a king.



6. For nine months the Lord Protector ruled without any check whatever. Then a new Parliament was called, and few Parliaments have been so truly representative of the British people. It was the first Parliament in which members from Scotland and Ireland sat side by side with the English members. The Parliament met on the third anniversary of the Worcester fight, September 3, 1654, but it hampered and hindered the Protector at every turn, and in five months he dissolved it. A second Parliament was called in 1656, and it established a sort of House of Lords, and asked Cromwell to become king. You already know that he refused the title, though he was king in all but name. The Parliament was dismissed in a few months, and Cromwell never called another.

7. For the rest of his reign he ruled as a despot, but he made his land feared and respected abroad, and kept good order at home. "We always reckon those eight years," said a Royalist bishop, "as a time of great peace and prosperity." Trade and commerce increased, and the people had a greater freedom of worship than they had ever had before. Nevertheless, Cromwell was bitterly hated, and his life was always in danger. He wore armour beneath his clothes, and slept in a different room almost every night. His enemies published a pamphlet pointing out that in his case "killing" was no murder. Despite the ever-present danger, he went his way fearlessly, though expecting a pistol-shot from every dark corner.

8. In the year 1658 his health began to fail. He was worn out with hard work and constant anxiety, and his hour had come. "I would be willing to live," murmured

the dying man, "to be further serviceable to God and His people, but my work is done!" On September 3, 1658, the anniversary day of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, he breathed his last.

9. Cromwell's son Richard quietly stepped into his father's place, but he was an easy-going country gentleman, with none of his father's masterful power. He called a Parliament, which contained many Royalists, and before long was at loggerheads with the army. Within a year Richard, yielding to the threats of the soldiers, dissolved Parliament and resigned his office. He went off to his country seat of Hursley, and there lived quietly for more than forty years. The army now recalled the forty survivors of the "Rump," and, to the great contempt of the nation, installed them at Westminster. Meanwhile the chiefs of the army began to quarrel amongst themselves, and for eight months there was no government worth the name.

10. The commander of the army in Scotland was George Monk, a cool, self-possessed man, who determined to use the forces at his command to restore steady and lawful government in place of the harsh and uncertain rule of the sword. Crossing the Tweed, he marched south with seven thousand men and seized London. A new Parliament was called, and was found to be full of Royalists. Monk saw clearly that the nation was ready for a king once more. Prince Charles was invited to return, and on the 29th of May, in the year 1660, he rode into London amidst loud shouts of joy. "It must be my own fault," he said, "that I have not come back sooner, for I find nobody who does not tell me that he has always longed for my return."

## 9. A CURSE AND A BLESSING.

1. To-day we will visit the university city of Cambridge and find our way to the old college known as Magdalene, but called by the students



THE CENTRAL WINDOW.

“Maudlin.” It was founded as far back as the reign of Henry the Eighth, on the site of an older college built in the days of Henry the Sixth. You will be sure to admire the fine entrance gateway, the quadrangle, the chapel, and the dining-hall.

2. From the quadrangle we pass into what is called the Second Court. Here we see a

fine building known as the Pepysian Library, after Samuel Pepys,\* a famous student of the College who became Secretary to the Admiralty in the time of Charles the Second. Above the central window you will see his arms and his motto in Latin. Pepys left his valuable books and prints to his old college, and they were placed in this building in the year 1724. They are now kept in a fireproof room at the back of the south wing. The twelve bookcases of red oak in which Pepys carefully arranged his treasures in his own house are still in use.

\* Pronounced Peps, or Peeps.





PEPYSIAN LIBRARY, MAGDALENE COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

3. Amongst the books which Pepys left to Magdalene College were six volumes of about three thousand pages written in shorthand. These volumes lay neglected for more than a hundred years, and nobody knew what they contained until a clergyman named Smith studied the shorthand in which they were written and turned the contents into longhand for all the world to read. It was then discovered that the books were nothing less than the diary which Pepys had kept, and in which he wrote very freely an account of the doings of each day from January 1, in the year 1660, to May 31, 1669.

4. Pepys was a good man of business, but he was also a man of fashion and pleasure. He was well known to the king and to most of the great men of his time. His official

position brought him into contact with the Court, and he was well informed about all that was going on. When the diary was first published, in 1825, it was eagerly read, and was found to give a most vivid and faithful picture of the manners, customs, habits, and amusements of the people in the time of Charles the Second. Pepys's diary has become one of the best known of English books.

5. While Pepys was writing daily in his diary two great misfortunes befell the people of London. Plague attacked the city, and fire almost burned it to the ground. Pepys first mentions the Great Plague on May 24, 1665. He writes : "The hottest day that ever I felt in my life. To the coffee-house, where all the news is.....of the plague growing upon us in this town, and of remedies against it ; some saying one thing, and some another." Then his references to it follow rapidly. On July 7, he writes : "This day, much against my will, I did in Drury Lane see two or three houses marked with a red cross upon the doors and 'Lord have mercy upon us' writ there, which was a sad sight to me, being the first of the kind that to my remembrance I ever saw." Those who were stricken with the disease began to shiver ; then they had headaches, and were light-headed. On the third or fourth day they fainted suddenly, and spots broke out on the breast. As soon as these appeared all hope was gone ; the poor victim was dead within an hour.

6. As we follow Pepys's pages we see alarm spreading, the clergy taking flight into the country, the stoppage of all work and trading, the grass growing in the streets, the bells tolling all the day long, the searchers going about

to discover houses infected with the plague, the dreaded death-carts rumbling through the streets, which echoed to the mournful cry, "Bring out your dead!" and then the hurried burial in great pits dug at St. Martin's-in-the-Fields and Mile End. It is a terrible picture, and we shudder as we realize it even to-day.

7. Pepys tells us a very sad story, which I think you will



SAMUEL PEPYS.

read with interest. When the plague was raging, no one was allowed to leave London, lest the disease should be spread over the country. A complaint was brought against a man for taking a child from an infected house, and the case was inquired into by the magistrates. They discovered that the child was the little daughter of a saddler. All his other children had died of the

plague, and the saddler and his wife were shut up in their house, never expecting to leave it alive. They had one wish in their despair, and that was to save the life of their little girl. At last they found a friend who promised to take her away from London. The child was let down from the window stark naked, and the friend, having dressed it in fresh clothes, took it to Greenwich, where, when the story was known, it was permitted to remain.



8. Now let me tell you how the plague arose. London at this time was a very filthy place indeed. The streets were narrow, and so shut in that little light or air could get into them. There were no drains and no scavengers, and the whole city was a place of foulness and bad smells. Now, dirt, bad drainage, close streets, and lack of fresh air all invite disease. The plague was no new thing; it had visited England several times before the year 1665, and had carried off thousands of people. Twenty-nine years, however, had elapsed since the last great outbreak, and the people and their houses were as dirty as ever.

9. The same disease exists in our own day, and is called bubonic plague. It is produced by microbes which grow in filth, and live in the air, food, or water. They are frequently carried about by such creatures as rats and mice. The microbes are easily killed by exposure to fresh air and sunlight, but they flourish greatly wherever there are dirt and foulness. In our own country, where we believe in cleanliness and fresh air, the plague is easily stamped out. The doctors of those days, however, were quite baffled by the disease, and during the hot, dry summer its ravages were terrible. In all, the death-roll of the year reached nearly one hundred thousand, or about one-fifth of the total population. The worst time of all was in the first fortnight of September, when the deaths were over a thousand a day. As the summer passed and the cold, high winds of winter blew, the plague gradually passed away.

10. We will now go to Fish Street Hill in London and see a graceful column two hundred and two feet high. Climb the three hundred and forty-five steps to the top, and you



**The Great Fire of London.**

*(From the mural painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, R.A., in the  
Royal Exchange, London.)*

will have a grand view of the river and the great city. Now descend. Read the words carved on one side of the base of the monument. They tell you that the column was set up to remind people of the Great Fire of London, which took place in the year following the Great Plague.

11. This fire broke out at one o'clock on Sunday morning, September 2, 1666, at the house of a baker in Pudding Lane, close to the place where the monument now stands. Most of the city was then built of wood, and there was a high wind blowing at the time. The flames spread very quickly, and the citizens could do nothing to stop them. Before long most of the city was one sheet of flame.

12. A great terror seized the people, but as soon as they got over their fright they began removing their goods to places of safety. Five, ten, and even fifty pounds were given for a cart. The barges and boats on the river were all laden with fugitives and their goods. The fields around London were full of furniture and of people camping out amidst their belongings. The fire continued to gain ground, and on Monday night the streets were as light as at noonday. The flames then reached St. Paul's. John Evelyn, a well-known writer of the time, and a keen observer, tells us in his diary that the stones flew like bombs, melting lead ran down the streets in streams, and the very pavements were red hot.



THE MONUMENT.



13. "God grant," says he, "my eyes may never behold the like. I now saw above ten thousand houses all in one flame. The noise and cracking and thunder of the flames, the shrieking of women and children, the hurry of people, the fall of towers, houses, and churches, was like an awful storm. The air was so hot that at last men were not able to approach the fire, and were forced to stand still and let the flames burn on, which they did for nearly two miles in length and one in breadth. The clouds of smoke were dismal, and reached nearly fifty-six miles in length. London was, but is no more !"

14. At last the fire was checked by blowing up a number of houses with gunpowder. The wind fell, and on Wednesday morning the fire ceased, "as it were, by a command from Heaven." Strange to say, having begun at Pudding Lane, it ended at Pie Corner. Actually, thirteen thousand houses and eighty-nine churches were burnt down, but only fourteen persons were killed. Every house and every building was destroyed over an area of four hundred and thirty-six acres.

15. The fire proved a blessing in disguise, for it swept away the foul courts and alleys which were little better than fever-dens. Wider and more open streets were built, and a number of stately new churches arose. The great architect Sir Christopher Wren rebuilt no fewer than fifty-four churches ; amongst them was St. Paul's Cathedral as we see it to-day.



## 10. THE NONCONFORMISTS.

1. Think of a Sunday morning in your town or village. When the church bells begin to ring, you see people dressed in their Sunday clothes making their way to the various places of worship. Some go to one church, some to another. Every man or woman chooses a form of religion and a place of worship for himself or herself, and no one has the shadow of a right to prevent them from doing so. You have never known anything different; to you this freedom of worship is the most natural thing in the world. Nevertheless, it is comparatively modern. During the greater part of the period with which this book deals it simply did not exist.

2. In earlier times every member of the nation was supposed to belong, as a matter of course, to the National Church. If a man worshipped in a different way, he was supposed to commit a kind of treason and to deserve punishment. At the end of the sixteenth century rulers honestly believed that those of their subjects who did not hold the religious opinions of the Church established in the State ought to be punished, and, if still obstinate, put to death. The burnings and tortures so common in the reigns of Henry the Eighth, Mary, and Elizabeth, moved men to pity for the victims and to disgust at the cruel waste of life; but they did not shock the conscience of the great bulk of the people.

3. Neither Protestant nor Catholic believed that a man ought to be allowed to choose his religion for himself, and practise it or not, just as he pleased. The Presbyterians in England and Scotland alike forced those who differed from

them to conform to their views; and even the Puritan Fathers, who crossed the Atlantic to win freedom of worship, would not allow it to others in the New World. Even as late as the end of the seventeenth century a great French writer truthfully said that both the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Church agreed that men who differed from them on religious matters ought to be punished.

4. During the Commonwealth the Church of England fell into the hands of the Puritans. The Prayer Book was forbidden, and those who went on using it were imprisoned. John Evelyn, of whom we read in the last lesson, tells us that on Christmas Day, 1657, he and a whole congregation were arrested in the midst of divine service because it was being conducted according to the Prayer Book.

5. The bishops were abolished, and the church buildings were declared to be the property of the nation. Thirty-eight "triers," as they were called, were chosen to select the ministers of the various parishes, and to turn out those who were of bad character or otherwise unsuitable. The "triers" only inquired into the personal piety and the ability of the ministers, and cared nothing for their views on doctrine or Church government so long as they were not Roman Catholic or Episcopalian—that is, those who held the old views about priests and bishops. As a consequence, a Presbyterian minister would be found in one parish, an Independent in the next, and a Baptist in a third.

6. If any person preferred to worship outside the National Church he was at liberty to do so, but this permission was not given either to Roman Catholics or to Episcopalians.



Under this system many of the sects still in existence arose, amongst them the Quakers, who believed that God spoke directly to each person's soul, and that there was no need for any outward acts of worship at all. Their great leader was George Fox, who organized a band of sixty travelling preachers, and soon had a very large following.

7. With the Restoration a change came over the scene. The Episcopalians were eager to re-establish their power in the Church and to make it supreme in the land. They found a willing helper in the king's chief minister, Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, a writer and speaker of great power, who had fought for "martyred Charles," had been faithful to his son during exile, and was now reaping the fruits of his fidelity.

8. A Conference was called in 1661 at the Savoy Palace for the purpose of considering what could be done, by making changes in the Prayer Book, to keep the Puritans in the Church. The conference consisted of twelve bishops and twelve Puritan ministers, and, as might have been expected, it came to no agreement. A new Parliament was elected, and was found to be composed almost entirely of Cavaliers who were zealous for Church and king. This meant that the Church of England once more became supreme in the land. The Solemn League and Covenant which had been passed by Parliament in 1643, and signed by Charles in 1650, and again at his coronation, was burnt by the common hangman.

9. Parliament then proceeded to show a spirit of bitter enmity towards all "Nonconformists"—that is, those who would not adopt the Church of England form of

worship. A series of spiteful Acts, known as the "Clarendon Code," was passed, and the reason for these Acts was that the "Nonconformists" had been the chief supporters of the Commonwealth. The first of them was passed in 1661. It forbade any person to take part in the government of a town who would not do three things—renounce the Solemn League and Covenant, deny the lawfulness of taking up arms against the king, and take the Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England.

10. This law was a terrible blow to the Presbyterians, who were all-powerful in most of the towns throughout the country. Unless they were willing to become members of the Church of England, they could no longer be mayors or town councillors, or hold any office under the corporations. This harsh and unfair Act created a great grievance, which continued down to the year 1828. Having thus driven Nonconformists out of local government, Parliament now proceeded to drive them out of the Church.

11. In 1662 the Act of Uniformity was passed. It declared that after three months no person might hold a living in the Church of England unless he had been ordained by a bishop, had taken the oaths according to the Act of 1661, publicly read the Prayer Book, and declared that he really believed in all which it contained. Now Charles, before returning to England, had promised that "no man shall be disquieted or called in question for differences of opinion in matters of religion;" and Clarendon, who felt some prickings of conscience, tried to bring about some arrangement in favour of the Puritan ministers who were actually holding livings in the Church. He failed to

secure any favour for them, and then the new Act was mercilessly carried into effect.

12. On St. Bartholomew's Day, 1662, about two thousand Baptist and Independent ministers who refused to "conform" were driven from their benefices, and went out into the highways and hedges. The Puritans were expelled not only from the Church but also from the universities and schools.

13. Parliament, having "purged" the town councils and the Church, now proceeded to persecute the Nonconformists. In 1664 it passed the "Conventicle Act," which forbade the holding of all religious services except those of the Church of England, under pain of fine and imprisonment. This shocking Act actually made family worship a crime if more than five persons not belonging to the family were present.

14. In the next year was passed the "Five Mile Act," which forbade ministers who had been expelled under the Uniformity Act from teaching in a school or living within five miles of a city or town with a corporation. The effect of the Clarendon Code was to drive large numbers of Nonconformists into the Church. By the end of the seventeenth century the Nonconformists did not number more than a fifth of the population.

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## II. THE FALL OF CLARENDON.

1. Look at the picture on page 65. It represents a scene which took place in the gardens of Whitehall during August 1667. On the left of the picture you see the king walking along a path towards the gate, and turning his back upon his old and tried minister Clarendon, who is descending the steps. Clarendon has just been dismissed from office, and has given up the Great Seal to the king. Observe the ill-concealed joy of the courtiers as they watch him leave Whitehall for the last time.

2. As you already know, Charles was a selfish, ungrateful, ill-living man, with one fixed idea in his mind—namely, that nothing should make him “go on his travels again.” In his private life he set his subjects the worst possible example. His Court was full of every kind of wickedness, and the offices of State were filled with his favourites. Charles was suspected of being a Roman Catholic and of wishing to restore the old faith if he could do so without risking the loss of his throne. After the second Dutch war, in which England was covered with disgrace, Clarendon was made the king’s scapegoat. He was blamed, most unjustly, for all the disasters of the war, and Charles dismissed him without a word of regret.

3. The king was not sorry to say “good-bye” to Clarendon, who was really an honest man, and had taken him to task for the wickedness of his Court. Clarendon had made himself disliked in a variety of other ways, but more especially by attempting to make Charles keep his promises. “He often said it was the making those promises which had brought

the king home, and the keeping them must keep him at home." Clarendon had many enemies at Court, and one of them used to whisper in Charles's ear, "There goes your schoolmaster."

4. Clarendon's fall was the signal for great rejoicing among the shameless crew which surrounded the king. As Clarendon, disgraced and abandoned, left Whitehall, Charles was told by a courtier "that this was the first time he could ever call him King of England, being freed from this great man." Clarendon took refuge at Rouen, and during the remaining seven years of his life finished his famous "History of the Rebellion," the most valuable of all the accounts which we possess of the Civil War.

5. "Freed from this great man," Charles began to descend deeper and deeper into the mire. He formed a ministry of his friends, and then made plans for ruling without a Parliament and restoring the nation to Rome, but without running undue risks. At this time the French king was Lewis the Fourteenth, one of the most ambitious men who ever sat on a throne, and the zealous champion of Catholicism. He dreamt of making himself master of Europe, and stamping out Protestantism altogether. He aimed his first blow at Holland.

6. In May 1670 Charles and Lewis secretly made what is known as the Treaty of Dover, by which France and England undertook to fight the Dutch, and share the Netherlands between them. There was a clause in the treaty by which Lewis promised to give £200,000 a year to Charles if the latter would do his best to restore the Roman Catholic religion in England. If rebellion broke



**The Fall of Clarendon.**

*(From the picture by E. M. Wood, R.A., in the National Gallery or British Art.)*



out, Charles was to have the aid of French troops to put it down. This shameful treaty was the first act of a drama which ended eighteen years later, when the Stuarts lost the throne for ever.

7. War was declared against Holland in 1672; and Charles issued a "Declaration of Indulgence," which suspended certain of the laws against the Nonconformists, both Protestants and Roman Catholics. Now this was an excellent thing in itself, but Charles had no right to alter the laws without the consent of Parliament. Protestants of all classes at once saw that Charles had only suspended the laws against the Nonconformists in order to favour the Roman Catholics.

8. A loud outcry went up, and Parliament passed the "Test Act," by which all persons holding office under the Crown were obliged to take the Sacrament according to the form of the Church of England. This Act prevented all Nonconformists, whether Protestants or Roman Catholics, from taking part in the government of the country. Two of the king's ministers and his brother James, Duke of York, were Roman Catholics, and they had therefore to give up their offices. To the disgust of Lewis, Charles agreed to this Act, and withdrew the Declaration of Indulgence. Had he not done so, it is probable that he would have gone on his travels again.

9. Meanwhile the Dutch, under the leadership of William, Prince of Orange, had driven back the forces of England and France; and the English Parliament, having learned something of the disgraceful secret treaty, demanded that peace should be made with Holland. This was done, and

three years later (1677) William of Orange married Mary, niece of the king, and eldest daughter of James, Duke of York.

10. Soon afterwards Lewis made peace with Holland, and then the whole of the secret treaty became known. The anger and alarm of the nation were great, and a man came forward with the tale that he had proofs of a terrible Roman Catholic plot against the king and the nation. His stories were all lies, but they were generally believed.

11. However, a sort of panic followed, and many Roman Catholics were imprisoned and executed on the evidence of worthless informers. Roman Catholics were shut out of the House of Lords, and later on Parliament tried to pass a law that James, the king's brother, should be "excluded" from the throne after the death of Charles. There were very fierce disputes on this question, and civil war nearly broke out. Parliament, however, did not succeed in preventing James from coming to the throne.

12. On February 6, 1685, Charles lay dying, and was privately reconciled to the Roman Catholic Church, to which he had long secretly belonged. One of his friends had previously suggested these not unsuitable lines for his tombstone :—

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,  
Whose word no man relies on ;  
Who never said a foolish thing,  
And never did a wise one."

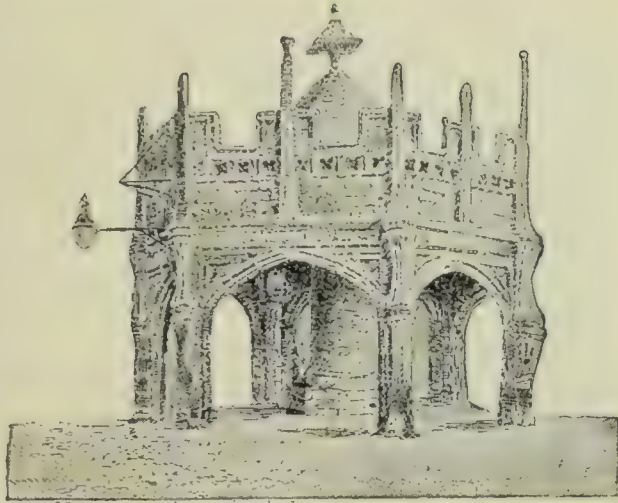


James II. receiving the News of the Landing of the Prince of Orange.  
Painted by J. E. M. Millais, R. A., in the Victoria and Albert Gallery, London.



## 12. SEDGEMOOR.—I.

1. To-day we will visit Bridgwater, an old Somersetshire town which stands some four miles from the scene of "the last fight deserving the name of a battle that has been fought on English ground." Bridgwater itself need not detain us long. It lies on both sides of the sluggish river Parret, some ten miles from its outlet in the Bristol Channel. Coasting craft sail up the river on the tide, and its mud makes the bath-bricks for which the town is noted.



BRIDGWATER CROSS, AT WHICH MONMOUTH  
WAS PROCLAIMED.

2. Let us make our way to the parish church, which boasts a slim spire rising to a height of one hundred and seventy-four feet. We climb to the top of the square tower from which the spire ascends, and look out over a flat expanse of fertile and well-wooded country, with the Mendip Hills to the north-east and the Quantocks to the south-west. Looking towards the south-east our eyes rest on Sedgemoor, which in earlier days was a dreary morass, but in the time of Charles the Second was partly reclaimed.

3. As we stand on Bridgwater Church tower we occupy the very coign of vantage from which the Duke of Monmouth, in the year 1685, observed through his tele-

scope the position of the Royal army which he was to attack before the dawn of another day. Who was this Monmouth, and how came he to be in arms against the king?

4. Let us go back for a few moments to the reign of Charles the Second. I told you in the last lesson that



DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

the king's brother James was a Roman Catholic. Lord Shaftesbury, the leader of the opposition to the Court party, feared that the Protestant faith would be in danger if James were to follow Charles as king. He and others wished the Duke of Monmouth, son of King Charles and Lucy Walters, the daughter of a Welsh Royalist, to succeed to the throne. Charles disliked the idea very much, and ban-

ished Monmouth to Holland. In 1680 he returned, and was everywhere received with the greatest joy. He made a progress through England, and wherever he went crowds cheered him to the echo.

5. At this time Monmouth was thirty-one years of age, extremely handsome, and gifted with the most charming manners. His father had given him all possible honours, and he had come to regard himself as heir to the throne. He had proved himself no mean soldier on the battlefields of the Netherlands, and in Scotland he had shown himself a



BRIDGWATER PARISH CHURCH.

merciful victor. He neglected no opportunity of making friends with the people. "He stood godfather to the children of the peasantry, mingled in every rustic sport, wrestled, played at quarterstaff, and won foot races in his boots against fleet runners in shoes."

6. His great claim, however, to the sympathy of the people was his staunch Protestantism. As a matter of fact, Monmouth had no settled religious opinions; he was by no means a good man, and his Protestantism was only a means to an end. He had taken part in a reckless plot towards the close of his father's reign, and had been obliged to take refuge in the Netherlands, with a sentence of death hanging over his head.

7. James began his reign by promising to "preserve the

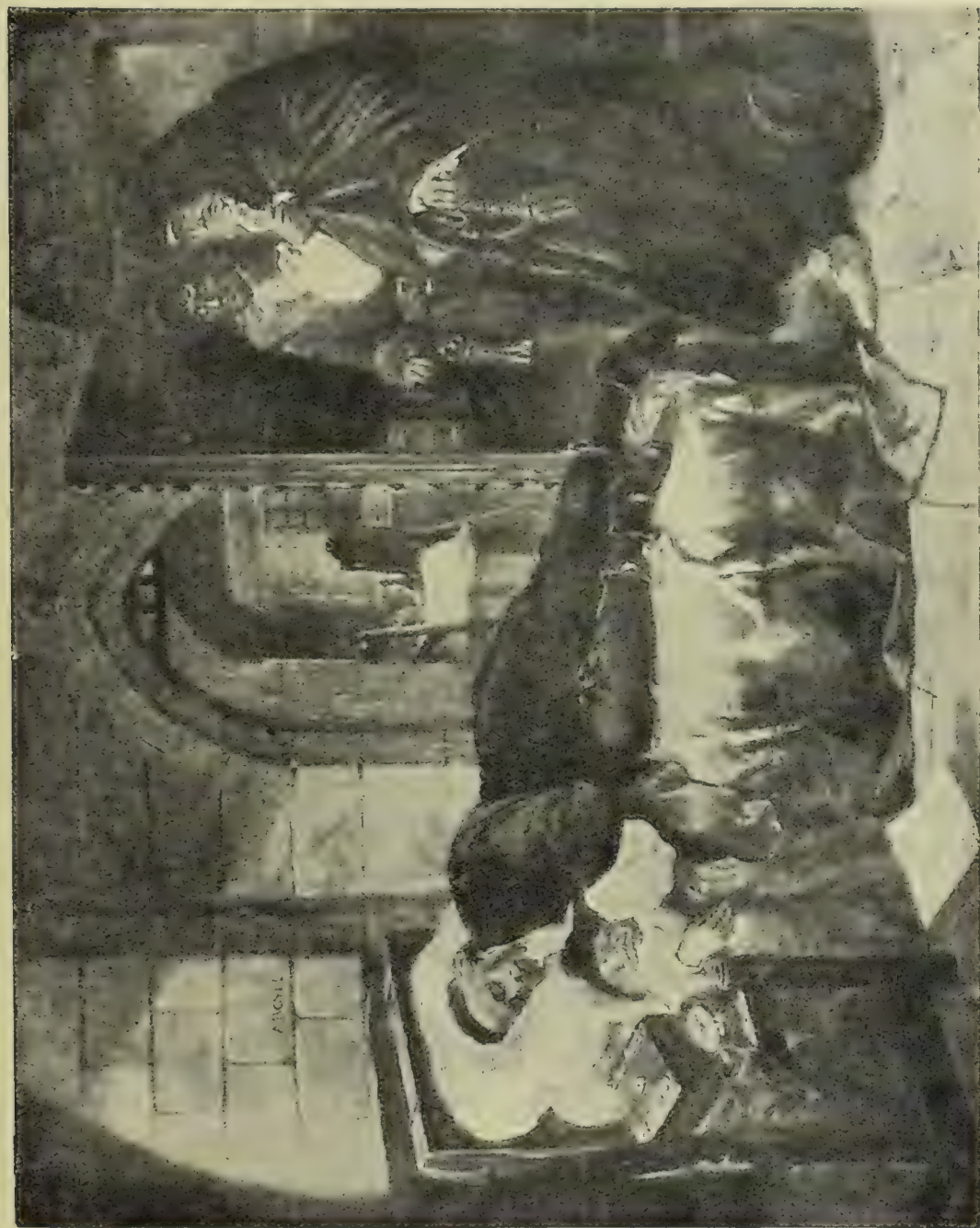


government both in Church and State as by law established." There was no opposition to him in the country ; men were ready to rely upon "the word of a king who was never worse than his word." They remembered his good work at the Admiralty, and his personal courage in the fights with the Dutch.

8. Really James was a stronger and better man than Charles ; but while the late king was witty, gracious, good-natured, and easy-going, James was dull, suspicious, sullen, and silent. He was totally unable to forgive or forget, and was quite merciless. While Charles cared little for religion, James was a zealous Roman Catholic, who was prepared to risk his crown for the sake of his Church.

9. The Protestantism of the nation was soon alarmed. On February 12 the king openly heard mass, and a week or two later the rites of the Church of Rome, after an interval of a hundred and twenty-seven years, were once more performed at Whitehall. Then came a proclamation that the laws of the last reign against Nonconformists were suspended, and thousands of prisoners were released. Parliament, however, showed no anger, for it was largely packed with the king's friends. It granted the king a most liberal income, and voted that any person who attempted to put another king on the throne should be treated as a traitor.

10. Meanwhile Monmouth in Holland was busy hatching a plot to oust James and secure the throne for himself. His fellow-conspirator was Archibald Campbell, Earl of Argyll, the leader of the Scottish Presbyterians, better known as the Covenanters. In the lesson on the Nonconformists



THE LAST SLEEP OF ARGYLL.

(From the fresco by E. M. Ward, R.A., in Westminster Palace.)

I told you how harshly the Dissenters were treated in England during the reign of Charles the Second. In Scotland their case was far worse.

11. Two years after the Restoration the Episcopal form of worship was re-established in Scotland, and the Presbyterian ministers who refused to acknowledge the bishops were turned out of their churches. Severe laws were passed to punish those who dared to stay away from public worship in their own parish churches, and troopers rode about the country persecuting the people who would not conform.

12. Many of the ministers who had been turned out of their livings continued to preach in the open air, and the people flocked to hear them. Harsh laws were passed against these "conventicles;" nevertheless, they continued to increase in number. With a Bible in one hand and a weapon in the other, the blue-bonneted Covenanters gathered on lonely hillsides for worship, while scouts kept watch for the coming of the dreaded troopers. Persecution at last drove the Covenanters to arms. After a victory at Drumclog, they were utterly defeated at Bothwell Brig in the year 1679, and a terribly cruel time of shooting and hanging, torture and transportation set in.

13. Argyll's father had been the leader of the Covenanters in the days of Charles the First, and after the Restoration he was put to death. His son, the Earl of Argyll, Monmouth's fellow-conspirator, refused to take the oath of the Scotch Test Act without adding a statement that thereby he did not prevent himself from trying to amend both Church and State. For this he was brought



to trial, and on little or no evidence was condemned to death.

14. Argyll escaped in disguise to London, and made his way to Amsterdam, where the leading English and Scottish exiles were assembled. Though there was not much sympathy between Monmouth and Argyll, they joined hands, and arranged that Argyll was to go to the west coast of Scotland, rouse his clansmen, who were devoted to him, and seize the country. This rising was to be promptly followed by a descent upon England, led by Monmouth. The scheme was doomed to failure from the outset. In Book III. I told you how Argyll paid the price of his failure with his head.

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### 13. SEDGEMOOR.—II.

1. Now let us see what progress Monmouth was making. On the morning of the 11th of June, 1685, a week before the capture of Argyll, three ships appeared off the little port of Lyme Regis, which lies midway between Portland Bill and the mouth of the river Exe. From these ships landed eighty well-armed men, led by Monmouth. As they stepped ashore he commanded silence, kneeled down, and asked a blessing on the venture in which he was now engaged. Then drawing his sword, he led his men over the cliffs into the little town.

2. At once there was great excitement in the place, and the fishermen came flocking to him, shouting, "A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant religion!" Meanwhile a blue flag had been set up in the market-

place, and a statement that Monmouth had come to free the nation from tyranny and Popery was read aloud.

3. The news spread like wildfire through the west. Many of the people were Dissenters who had suffered all sorts of petty persecution. These men hailed the advent of Monmouth with the utmost eagerness. They remembered how he endeared himself to them when he passed through the country in 1680, and they flocked with almost one accord to his banner. By the time he reached Chard many of the Devonshire peasants and artisans had gathered to welcome the "Protestant Duke." Recruits came in by hundreds daily; arming and drilling went on all day.

4. On the 18th of June Monmouth reached Taunton, which is one of the pleasantest and most prosperous towns in the west of England. Taunton gave Monmouth a splendid welcome. Every door and window was adorned with wreaths of flowers. No man appeared in the streets without wearing in his hat a green bough, the badge of the popular cause. Damsels of the best families in the town wove colours for the rebels. One flag in particular was embroidered with the royal arms, and was offered to Monmouth by a train of young girls. The lady who headed the procession presented him also with a small Bible of great price. He took it with a show of reverence. "I come," he said, "to defend the truths contained in this book, and to seal them, if it must be so, with my blood."

5. Now let us hasten on the last chapter in this "strange, eventful history." We are now standing on Bridgwater Church tower where "King" Monmouth—

for he had already assumed the title—stood on the Sunday morning of July 5, 1685. The trainbands of the surrounding counties and the Life-guards were closing in upon him, and the royal army was daily drawing nearer and nearer. If victory was to be secured, a battle must be fought without delay.

6. Monmouth knew that his foes were encamped in the villages on Sedgemoor, and were rapidly drinking themselves drunk with Somerset cider. A night attack would find them heavy in sleep. He therefore determined that he would make a march under cover of the darkness that very night, and fall upon the surprised enemy before dawn.

7. By one o'clock in the morning of Monday, the 6th of July, the half-armed rabble was on the open moor. Between them and the enemy were three broad ditches or *rhines* full of mud and water. Monmouth knew of two of these ditches, and had planned the advance so as to cross them by the causeways. He was, however, ignorant of the third, and when his army reached its brink it was powerless to cross and attack the king's troops, who were only a few yards away.

8. A random pistol shot had already aroused the Royalists. "Boot and saddle" was sounded, and soon the cavalry, scrambling into order, found themselves near to the rhine which separated them from the enemy. "For whom are you?" called out an officer of the Foot-guards. "For the king," was the reply from the rebel ranks. "For which king?" was then demanded. The answer was a loud shout of "King Monmouth! God be with us!" The royal troops at once fired, and the rebel horse fled, and along



with them the drivers of the ammunition wagons with the powder and ball.

9. For a time the battle resolved itself into two rows of men shooting at each other across a broad trench of inky water. The unequal contest was soon decided, and Monmouth, seeing that all hope was gone, turned and fled. His deserted followers, however, made a gallant stand, but their scythes and pitchforks were useless against the swords of the king's troopers, and the arrival of the artillery brought the engagement to a speedy close. More than one thousand of the rebels lay dead on the field. Thus ended the last battle on English ground.

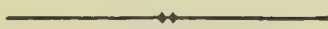
10. Then came the terrible reckoning. Monmouth, disguised as a shepherd, was discovered hiding in a ditch with a handful of raw peas in his pocket. He was taken to London, and in striking contrast with his fellow-conspirator Argyll, all his courage forsook him. James yielded to his piteous appeals and agreed to see him. Monmouth, with his arms fastened behind him with a silken cord, threw himself on the ground and crawled to the king's feet, begging for his life at any price. The stony-hearted king, however, refused to be moved, and Monmouth's head was struck from his body a few days later.

11. A brutal soldier named Kirke, who in the battle had commanded a regiment of equally brutal soldiers, took cruel vengeance on the rebels. You may still see at Taunton the house in which he lodged. It was formerly an inn, and on its signpost he hanged scores of peasants while his drums struck up and his officers drained their glasses. Then came Judge Jeffreys, a drunken, foul-mouthed wretch, who,

after trials which were mere mockeries, hanged three hundred and twenty persons, and transported many others to the West Indies.

12. Jeffreys openly boasted that he had hanged more traitors than all the chief-justices since the Conquest. Perhaps his most infamous sentence was that on Lady Alice Lisle, who had sheltered two fugitives from Sedgemoor. Jeffreys wished to burn her, but at last agreed to behead her instead. Not even the little girls who had presented the banner to Monmouth escaped. Two of them died in prison, and the rest were only released upon payment of a heavy ransom.

13. "No English sovereign has ever given stronger proofs of a cruel nature than James the Second." "His heart was as hard as the marble chimney-pieces of Whitehall." Monmouth's rebellion did not shake his throne, but the terrible vengeance which was wreaked on the poor misguided people of the west sent a thrill of horror through the whole country, and made men loathe his very name. Nevertheless, he stamped out all resistance, and his position was stronger than ever. In the next lesson we shall learn the story of his downfall.



#### 14. "THE SEVEN LAMPS OF THE CHURCH."—I.

1. To-day we will pay a visit to the Tower of London. We walk along the Embankment between its outer wall and the river, and pause to examine a wide archway closed by a pair of swing gates. This is the famous Traitor's Gate. Formerly the river lapped against the walls of the



TRAITOR'S GATE.

Tower, and boats could be rowed right through this archway into the fortress. Through this gloomy water passage countless prisoners of state have passed to long imprisonment in sunless dungeons and to the final scene on Tower Hill.

2. On Friday, June 8th, in the year 1688, a barge laden with prisoners, closely guarded by armed men, passed through Traitor's Gate amidst loud cries from the thronged river of "God bless your lordships." Who were these noble prisoners? They were no conspiring statesmen or rebellious soldiers, but the Archbishop of Canterbury and



six bishops of the Church. James the Second, rushing headlong to his doom, had seized them in his council chamber at Whitehall, and had committed them to the Tower.

3. They had passed to their barge on the river through crowds of Londoners, some of whom fell on their knees and thanked God that the spirit of Ridley and Latimer lived again, while others dashed into the stream and waded out through the ooze and water to give them a parting cheer. As the bishops stepped ashore, even the sentinels of the Tower begged a blessing ; and later in the day their guards drank their healths, and refused to drink any other. All day long the coaches of the first nobles of England were seen at the prison gates, and thousands of spectators covered Tower Hill. A crisis in the history of the nation had now arrived.

4. In order to explain this scene we must go back to the year following the Monmouth rebellion. James had overthrown his enemies both in England and in Scotland, and had punished them so severely that they no longer dared to oppose him. Parliament was his obedient tool, the judges were his creatures, and his income was greater than that of any former king. He now thought the time ripe for making himself an absolute king and giving freedom to the Roman Catholic religion—the two things upon which he had set his heart.

5. He first tried to secure the power of keeping in prison whomsoever he pleased just as long as he wished—that is, he endeavoured to get the Habeas Corpus Act repealed. This Act, which had been passed in the reign of his brother,

is one of the chief bulwarks of our liberty. It contains a principle far older than Magna Charta, which only restated the old law when it said, "To none will we sell, to none will we deny or delay, right or justice." The Tudors and Charles the First had thrust men and women into prison and kept them there without any intention of bringing them to trial. Sometimes they sent prisoners to the Channel Islands and other places beyond the sea, in order that they might be kept in prison at the royal pleasure.

6. The Habeas Corpus Act put an end to this illegal imprisonment altogether. The Latin words "Habeas Corpus" mean, "You may have the body." The Act ordained that a judge must give a prisoner an order to his jailer, calling upon the jailer to produce the prisoner's body in court, and to state the cause of his imprisonment, within twenty days. You can easily see that this Act made secret and illegal imprisonment impossible. The prisoner could insist on being brought to trial within a brief period, and the king could no longer keep persons in prison without the sentence of the ordinary courts of law.

7. James tried hard to get Parliament to do away with this law. The men who had reared up this great bulwark of liberty were Whigs—that is, those who believed Parliament should be supreme in the State; but now the Tories—that is, those who believed in the "divine right" of kings—were equally determined to stand by the law. Both parties united to resist the king, and he was forced to let the matter drop and proceed with another design—namely, to set up a great standing army which would enable him to overawe his subjects. At the time of

Monmouth's rebellion he had largely increased the regular forces of the country, and now he had nearly twenty thousand men under arms. Naturally, this force cost money to maintain, and James appealed to Parliament for £1,400,000.

8. Friendly as Parliament was to the king, it disliked this proposal greatly. Members recollected how, in the days of the Commonwealth, Cromwell had ruled by means of the army, and they were very unwilling to put such a weapon into the king's hands. Further, James had been breaking the Test Act by appointing large numbers of Roman Catholic officers to the command of the troops. This illegal favour which the king had shown to the Roman Catholics alarmed the Protestant mass of the people, and their alarm was increased by an event which just then took place in France. Lewis the Fourteenth now withdrew all the privileges which his Protestant subjects had enjoyed for eighty-seven years, and attempted to stamp Protestantism out of France.

9. For these and other reasons the Commons offered the king half the sum he asked for, and reminded him that he had broken the law in appointing Catholics as officers of the army. James sent a haughty message in reply, and put an end to the session of Parliament. He thus sacrificed the £700,000 which had been offered to him.

10. James now saw clearly that Parliament would not repeal the Test Act, so he determined to put into force an old claim of the Stuarts to override the law altogether. This was known as the “dispensing power,” and by it the king claimed to give to any person freedom from the punishment attached to the breaking of the law. For instance,



he appointed a Roman Catholic named Sir Edward Hales to the command of one of his new regiments, and this officer, when tried for taking the office, pleaded that the king had relieved him of punishment for the offence.

11. The case was brought before the judges, who decided that the king had the right to "dispense" with the law at his pleasure. Armed with this decision, James now began to appoint Roman Catholics to high offices in every department of the State. They became judges, officers, sheriffs, lord-lieutenants, and mayors in defiance of the law.

12. Having "captured" the chief offices in the State, James now began to attack the Church of England. He appointed Roman Catholics as the heads of two Oxford colleges. The fellows of Magdalen College refused to receive the president whom James had chosen for them, and were expelled in a body, twelve Catholic fellows being appointed in their places. Laud's old Church Court was revived, and with the bloodthirsty Jeffreys at its head it began to threaten the clergy. Meanwhile a large army had been assembled on Hounslow Heath, and had been strengthened by the addition of several Irish regiments.

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## 15. "THE SEVEN LAMPS OF THE CHURCH."—II.

1. The crisis came in the spring of 1688. The king now determined to suspend all laws against the Roman Catholics, but this he knew would set every Protestant in

the realm against him. He therefore tried to make friends with the Nonconformists, and thus secure their powerful aid in overthrowing the Church of England. On his own authority he issued a “Declaration of Indulgence,” which suspended the laws against Roman Catholics and Dissenters alike, and allowed them to worship publicly and freely.

2. Of course, all laws which try to force people to worship in a particular way are thoroughly bad, and to do away with them is a wise and just act. But James had no right whatever to suspend the laws without the authority of Parliament, and many of the Dissenters believed that the king was only giving them freedom of worship in order to pull down the Protestant Church of England and establish the Roman Catholic religion in its place. The great majority of the Nonconformists refused to help the king. They were Protestants first and Nonconformists afterwards.

3. James now ordered every clergyman in the land to read the Declaration of Indulgence from his pulpit on two successive Sundays. The bishops held a meeting at Lambeth Palace, and agreed to send a petition to the king pointing out that the Declaration was illegal, and begging to be excused from issuing it. The paper was signed by Archbishop Sancroft, and Bishops Lloyd of Saint Asaph, Turner of Ely, Lake of Chichester, Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Bristol.

4. When the day for reading the Declaration came round the clergy almost to a man refused to do so. Where there was a weak-kneed or time-serving clergyman prepared to obey the royal order, the congregation rose and withdrew

at the first words. Samuel Wesley, the father of John and Charles Wesley, actually preached from the text, "Be it known unto thee, O king, that we will not serve thy gods, nor worship the golden image which thou hast set up."

5. A week later the king took the last and fatal step in his downward career. He resolved to bring the bishops to trial for libel—that is, for speaking evil of his character by sending him their petition. The charge was ridiculous, but for all that the bishops were brought before the council and browbeaten by the king. They refused to give way, and on the evening of the eighth of June he committed them to the Tower. Now you understand the meaning of the scene with which the last lesson opened.

6. The bishops were brought to trial at Westminster Hall on the 29th of June. From the landing-place they passed through a vast throng of spectators, who blessed and cheered them as they passed. The whole nation was in a fever of excitement. In Cornwall, where memories of the "Protestant Duke" still lingered, the peasants sang—

"And shall Trelawney die? and shall Trelawney die?"

Then thirty thousand Cornish boys will know the reason why."

7. The trial lasted all day, and evening had arrived when the jury retired to consider their verdict. They were locked up, and all night long they sat disputing. Nine were for acquitting and three for convicting. Two of the minority were won over, but a man named Arnold remained obstinate. A county gentleman named Austin was equally obstinate on the other side. "Before I find," said he, "such a petition as this a libel, here I stay till I am no



bigger than a tobacco pipe." The threat was sufficient, and the jury agreed.

8. At ten o'clock the next morning the court assembled. Amidst breathless silence the clerk of the court asked, "Do you find the defendants guilty or not guilty?" The foreman replied, "Not guilty!" When the news spread the nation went almost frantic with joy. Church bells rang merry peals, bonfires blazed, and even the soldiers on Hounslow Heath cheered themselves hoarse. James was a beaten man. In less than six months he was flying for his life to the court of the French king.

9. In the very month in which the bishops were acquitted a son was born to James, the prince who was afterwards known as the "Old Pretender." Before the birth of this child the Protestant Princess of Orange had been heir to the throne. Now the line of King James was to be continued, and this prospect filled the land with dismay. Before long a plot, which included men of both parties, was formed to overthrow the king. The Tories had stood by him as long as they possibly could; when the Church, which was more sacred to them than the crown, was threatened their loyalty vanished. An invitation was sent to Princess Mary and her husband, William of Orange, on June 30, 1688, asking them to come over and rule.

10. William was glad to come, and after issuing a declaration, in which he said he was coming to England with an army in order to secure a free Parliament, he landed at Torbay (November 5, 1688). On his way to London he was joined by many of the gentry; and as James

marched westward, whole companies and regiments of his soldiers deserted him and joined the enemy. Even the Princess Anne left her father's court and sought refuge at Nottingham. The king burst into tears when he heard the news. "God help me!" he cried in his misery; "my own children have forsaken me."

11. Seeing his army melting away, James returned to London, sent his wife and son off to France, and then tried to follow himself. On his way he was caught by some fishermen and brought back. No one wished to keep him a prisoner; indeed, every one wished to see him out of the country as soon as possible. He was therefore taken to Rochester, where he was allowed to escape to France (December 23, 1688).

12. By this time William was in London, and had called a meeting of peers and former members of Parliament. Some of the Tories wished to bring James back, if he would promise to govern better; others wanted William as regent; and others, again, thought that William's wife Mary, the daughter of James, should be queen. The two first plans were out of the question; and as for the third, William refused to be merely his wife's chief minister. At length it was decided that William and Mary should reign together as king and queen.

13. A Declaration of Right was drawn up. It gave a list of the illegal acts which James had done—such as suspending the laws, and keeping up a standing army in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament. The national rights and liberties—such as the right of sending a petition to the king, the calling together of frequent Parliaments,

and the rule that no Roman Catholic should sit on the throne of England—were stated anew.

14. William and Mary were offered the crown on condition that they would rule faithfully, according to the Declaration. "We thankfully accept," replied William, speaking for himself and his wife, "what you have offered us." Two months later William and Mary were crowned as joint-sovereigns. Thus the Revolution, or overturning of the Government, was carried out in England almost without bloodshed. Once more the people of England had asserted their right to choose their own king. "Divine right" was dead and buried, and Parliament had become supreme in the State.

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## 16. AFTER THE REVOLUTION.

1. "To the Lords of Convention 'twas Claver'se who spoke,  
'Ere the King's crown goes down there are crowns to be  
broke;  
Then each Cavalier who loves honour and me  
Let him follow the bonnets of Bonnie Dundee.'"

This is the opening verse of a well-known and spirited ballad written by Sir Walter Scott more than a century after the events which it celebrates. Though the song is modern, it will serve to introduce us to the period of fierce warfare which followed the accession of William and Mary to the English throne.

2. Though the nation had no particular liking for William and Mary, not a sword was drawn in England



for James. Mary herself was a warm-hearted and tactful woman, who soon made herself loved by all about her. William, on the other hand, was a cold, sullen person, who neither loved the English nor expected to be loved by them. He quite understood that he was king only because England could not very well do without him.

3. Though there was peace in England, Scotland and Ireland were in a state of ferment. Charles the Second and James the Second had dealt very cruelly with Scotland, and had forced the bishops upon the people. The Covenanters were most harshly treated, and three hundred ministers gave up their livings rather than submit to the bishops. Laws were passed severely fining all who dared to stay away from public worship in their own parish churches, and troopers rode about the country oppressing the people.

4. You have been told that many of the ministers who had been turned out of their livings continued to preach in the open air, and people flocked to hear them. In spite of the laws which were passed against these "conventicles," they continued, and even increased in number. The stern, unbending Covenanters continued to gather on lonely hillsides and in secluded glens to receive the ministrations of their pastors, but they came prepared to defend themselves if they were discovered. Persecution at last drove the Covenanters to arms. The most terrible time of persecution came after their defeat at Bothwell Bridge (1679). The chief agent in this persecution was the "Bonnie Dundee" of Sir Walter Scott's song. "Bonnie Dundee" was John Graham of Claverhouse, who was created Viscount Dundee by James the Second shortly before William's



COVENANTERS AT WORSHIP

invasion of England. The Covenanters hated him bitterly, and actually believed that he had sold himself to the Evil One.

5. When James fled the kingdom, the persecuted Scots rose in wrath and swept all of his friends out of office. Still there were people in Scotland, especially among the Highlanders, who stood by the dethroned king. Dundee roused them in support of James, and with three thousand Highlanders and a few Irish troops seized Blair Castle, which commanded the long and narrow Pass of Killiecrankie.

6. William's general, Mackay, brought his troops through the steep and rugged ravine, and just as they emerged upon the narrow tableland at its upper end, the Highlanders, with a furious shout, charged down upon them. Throwing away their guns, they drew their broadswords, and before the royal troops had time to fix bayonets, made such a terrible onslaught that Mackay's forces turned and fled. In a few minutes the battle was over and won. Dundee fell in the hour of victory, and his death was a fatal blow to the cause of James in Scotland. The Highlanders gave themselves up to plunder, and when they dispersed to their homes all resistance to William north of the Border was at an end.

7. Before long most of the Highland clans had sworn to live peaceably under William's government. Unfortunately, Macdonald of Glencoe did not take the oath till just after the last day allowed for his submission. The Master of Stair, then Secretary of State for Scotland, had a private grudge against the Macdonalds, and he persuaded William to let him punish the clan. Some soldiers were therefore sent to Glencoe, and were kindly received by the





# Glencoe.

(From the painting by J. B. MacDonald in the National Gallery of Scotland, Edinburgh, Scotland.)

Macdonalds. Suddenly in the night they turned upon their hosts and murdered the greater number of them (February 1692). The "Massacre of Glencoe," as this foul deed was called, has ever since blackened the memory of William.

8. In Catholic Ireland James had the bulk of the population at his back, and when in March 1689 he landed at Cork with French officers, arms, and money, he found himself master of the whole country except the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen. These places, which were at once besieged, were full of Protestants prepared to offer the most desperate resistance. The siege of Londonderry is so famous that we must give special attention to it.

9. Let us pay a visit to this old Ulster city. We find it strikingly situated on rising ground, half surrounded by the broad river Foyle, and about four miles above its expansion into Lough Foyle. The best way to see Londonderry is to make a circuit of its historic walls. We ascend them at the bottom of Ship Quay Street, and following the course of the sun soon see the cathedral on our right. Here we descend from the wall. In the east angle of the graveyard is a monument in honour of the men who distinguished themselves in the siege. At the west end of the cathedral, under the tower, we see a bombshell which fell in the churchyard during the Irish attack on the city.

10. Remounting the wall at Bishop's Gate, which is now a triumphal arch in memory of William the Third, we continue our circuit of the wall, and reach the Double Bastion, which contains "Roaring Meg," the "great gun" of the siege. A hundred yards farther on stands Walker's



LONDONDERRY.

The river in the foreground is the Foyle; the prominent church is the cathedral (built 1633). The walls are one mile in circuit, and were constructed early in the seventeenth century. The famous siege took place in the year 1689.



Monument. It is a column ninety feet high, and on the top is a statue of the hero of the siege. Round the pedestal are the names of other gallant defenders.

11. In December 1688 James sent Lord Antrim to Londonderry with twelve hundred men to garrison the city. The corporation and the bishop were willing to admit the troops, but not so the people. Thirteen young apprentices flew to the guardroom, armed themselves, seized the keys of the city, rushed to the gate, and closed it in the face of James's officers. From the top of the walls Antrim and his soldiers were advised to be gone, and thinking discretion the better part of valour they retreated. The Protestants of the neighbourhood came flocking into the city, and a small Protestant garrison, under Colonel Lundy, was admitted. By this time thirty thousand men were within the walls, and the Jacobite army, under General Hamilton, was close at hand.

12. Lundy was half-hearted from the first. He did everything in his power to dissuade the people from resistance, and even wrote to the enemy, promising them the surrender of the city. James now joined his army, and on the seventeenth of April he advanced to within a hundred yards of the gate of the town, expecting to see it fly open at his summons. To his amazement, however, he was met with a volley and loud shouts of "No surrender" from the inhabitants who manned the walls. James was obliged to fly for his life. Lundy, in disguise, let himself down from the wall and escaped. His memory is still hated by the Protestants of Ulster, and his effigy is annually burned in front of the Walker memorial.

13. Londonderry was badly prepared to stand a siege. The walls were weak, there were few cannon, and the forts had fallen into ruin. Nevertheless, Walker's stirring words so fired the people that they determined that, come what might, they would not yield. They formed themselves into companies, appointed officers, obeyed orders, and faced dangers and hardships with wonderful resolution. The walls were strengthened, guns were placed at every gate, and two pieces of artillery played on the besiegers from the roof of the cathedral. On April 18, 1689, the siege began in earnest.

14. Fighting went on almost daily, but the Jacobites were foiled at every attempt to enter the city. There were assaults by the garrison, and constant attacks by the besiegers; but the Derry men drove back their foes time after time. The women were as full of spirit as the men, and did excellent service in carrying powder and food to the soldiers on duty. The fire of the besiegers ploughed up the streets and destroyed many of the houses; but there was a deadlier enemy to be opposed within the city itself.

15. Hamilton now attempted to starve out the city, which was surrounded so closely that communication with the outside world was quite cut off. The hopes of the Derry men were centred in the fleet which William was sending from England to bring them relief. In order to prevent any help reaching the place from the sea, the enemy had stretched a boom made of strong cables and timber logs across the river.

16. Provisions ran short, and horse-flesh, dogs, rats, and refuse of all sorts became the only food of the starving



THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

(From the picture by Benjamin West, R.A. By permission of Messrs. Henry Graves and Co.)



townsfolk. Numbers of men, women, and children perished daily; but in spite of all their terrible sufferings no one breathed the word "surrender." On the fifteenth of June the watchers on the cathedral tower saw to their joy a fleet of thirty ships sailing up Lough Foyle. The ships contained provisions for the starving people, and soldiers for the defence of the city. The hopes of the hungry inhabitants were, however, not yet to be realized, for the fleet was forced to retire and lie off the mouth of the lough.

17. On the evening of Sunday, the twenty-eighth of July, just when the last hope of relief seemed gone, the watchers saw three ships approaching. The commander of the fleet had received positive orders to force the boom; and the frigate *Dartmouth*, with two transports, was now attempting to do so. The *Mountjoy* dashed at the boom, and though the ship rebounded and ran aground, the *Phœnix* following her succeeded in breaking the boom; and the three ships sailed up to the city amidst frantic cries of delight from the starving defenders. At once there was an abundance of food, and Derry was saved after a remarkable siege of one hundred and five days, during which some two thousand three hundred of the citizens perished. On the first of August the besiegers withdrew

18. Enniskillen, sixty miles south of Derry, was also a rallying-point of the Protestant colonists. Early in May 1689 the Enniskilleners routed James's troops, and resisted a number of attacks made upon them. On the day before the relief of Derry they marched out and met the Irish near Newtown Butler, where they gained a complete victory. The slaughter was dreadful—one thousand five hundred

Irish being killed, and five hundred drowned in Lough Erne, into which they were driven.

19. Through the long agony of Londonderry William was forced to look on and do nothing. Now, however, he crossed to Ireland, landed at Carrickfergus, and prepared to march on Dublin. James tried to stop his advance on the banks of the river Boyne ; but William's troops crossed the river under fire, and put the Irish army to flight (July 1, 1690). The battle of the Boyne, though it did not end the war, gave the death-blow to the cause of James in Ireland. While his supporters were struggling in the west, James fled to France. In July 1691 the Irish army was cut to pieces, and the war was at an end.

20. During the remainder of his reign, William was engaged in a war against his old enemy, Lewis the Fourteenth of France. The French king was bent on subduing the Spanish Netherlands and other provinces, so as to extend his kingdom eastward to the Rhine. At first the fortune of war went against William, but in 1697 he made a peace with France, by which Lewis gave back to their rightful owners the conquests he had made, and acknowledged William as King of England. By this peace William secured himself on the throne, saved Holland, gained control of the sea, and checked the ambitions of Lewis.

21. On February 20, 1701, William fell from his horse and broke his collar-bone. This accident was too much for his enfeebled frame. Early in the next month he breathed his last, having survived his wife six years. William died long before his work was done. The duel between France and Great Britain was only in its opening stages.

**17. MARLBOROUGH.—I.**

1. To-day we will visit one of the stateliest of the many "stately homes of England." We journey to the little Oxfordshire town of Woodstock, and within a short distance of the main street we see a triumphal arch which gives access to a great park. Soon after we pass through the arch we get a glimpse of the towers of the palace which we have come to see. In front of it is a beautiful lake, crossed by a fine stone bridge of three arches. On the distant bank rises a lofty column crowned by a statue. The house is Blenheim Palace, and the statue on the top



STATUE OF MARLBOROUGH IN THE PARK OF  
BLENHEIM PALACE.



of the column is in memory of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, the man who succeeded and outshone William in the conduct of the great struggle with France.

2. Marlborough's greatest victory was won at Blendheim, or Blenheim, a village of Bavaria, on August 13, 1704. So important and far-reaching was the effect of the battle that the Government in gratitude presented Marlborough with £500,000 with which to purchase the manor of

Woodstock and erect a palace which should be named after his great victory. The building was begun in the summer of 1705, but was not completed until after the death of the duke.



JOHN CHURCHILL, FIRST  
DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

*(From the painting in  
the National Portrait Gallery.  
Photo by Walker & Cockerell.)*

3. Standing before this princely token of a nation's gratitude, let us learn something of the career of the man who earned it. John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, was the son of a Devonshire Cavalier, Sir Winston Churchill, and was born in 1650, the year preceding the battle of

Worcester, which finally put an end to the Civil War and established the Commonwealth in England. The Restoration took place when Churchill was ten years of age, and seven years later he was made an ensign in the army.

4. After five years' service abroad, he became colonel of an English regiment which was retained in the service of France. By this time the "handsome Englishman," as he was called, had already shown some of the qualities of a

great soldier. When an advance post was given up to the enemy, Marshal Turenne actually wagered a supper that Marlborough would recover it with half the number of men who had abandoned it, and the wager was won. He was absolutely fearless, cool and unruffled in temper, calm and far-seeing in judgment. His manners were as winning as his person, and he won favour wherever he went. Thanks to the friendship of the Duke of York, afterwards James the Second, to whose fortunes he attached himself, he was raised to the peerage. At the time of Monmouth's rebellion James made him major-general of the forces, and the victory at Sedgemoor was largely due to his coolness and resource in rallying the royal troops when thrown into disorder by the night attack of the rebels.

5. Just before James's flight Churchill declared that he would shed the last drop of his blood to keep his master on the throne. Nevertheless, he had already promised to assist William, and when that prince began his march on London he deserted the king's army on the eve of battle. He and his wife also persuaded the Princess Anne to forsake her father and put herself under the protection of William. For these services the new king created him Earl of Marlborough. During the Irish war he was given an important command, and so well did he acquit himself that William, who was no mean judge of a soldier, said that he knew no man so fit to be a general who had seen so few campaigns.

6. Marlborough owed much of his rapid promotion to his wife. In 1678 he married a penniless beauty of the Court, named Sarah Jennings. She was a lady of violent temper, but she also possessed a strange power of winning

and retaining affection. Marlborough's love for his wife "ran like a thread of gold through the dark web of his career." He hated writing, chiefly because his spelling was so bad. Nevertheless, in the midst of his marches and his sieges, and even from the battlefield itself, he constantly wrote his wife letters full of the deepest affection.

7. When Marlborough wooed and won Sarah Jennings, she was the bosom friend and constant companion of the Princess Anne, whom she had known from girlhood. Soon she obtained complete mastery over the weak and feeble nature of the princess, who became a mere puppet in her hands. The friends were so intimate that they laid aside their titles; Anne was Mrs. Morley, and the duchess was Mrs. Freeman. Anne saw with her favourite's eyes and spoke with her favourite's words. If Mrs. Morley showed one spark of independence, she was deafened and crushed by the violent reproaches of Mrs. Freeman. Anne's husband, Prince George of Denmark, did not count at all. He was considered the most harmless and the most stupid man in the land.

8. Counting upon his wife's complete control of the princess, Marlborough now began to plot against William. His plan was to take advantage of William's great unpopularity, and drive him from the throne in favour of Anne. The plot was discovered, and William, usually cool and calm, was roused to great anger. "Were I and my Lord Marlborough private persons," he cried, "the sword would have to settle between us." At once the earl was stripped of his offices, and his wife was driven from St. James's. Anne, however, refused to be parted from her friend, and left the Court with her. Then Marlborough



began to plot with the deposed king at St. Germain's. He informed James of William's intended attack on Brest, expressed his deep sorrow for having deserted his rightful sovereign, and obtained a written promise of pardon. The attack on Brest was a complete failure. Thanks to Marlborough, the enemy was forewarned and forearmed, and more than a thousand Englishmen were slain. This piece of foul treachery is the blackest stain on Marlborough's character.

9. Queen Mary died childless in 1694, and Anne became the heir to the throne. William was obliged to recall her to the Court, and with her returned the Marlboroughs. William hated the earl's baseness and treachery, but he recognized his splendid gifts, and saw clearly that he of all men was the fittest to carry on the great work of checking the ambition of Lewis. Marlborough was therefore sent to Flanders at the head of the army, and had only just taken command when William met with his fatal accident.

10. The succession of Anne practically made the Marlboroughs king and queen of England. Three days later Marlborough was appointed captain-general of the British forces at home and abroad, and entrusted with the entire direction of the war. Offices and gifts were showered upon his wife, and the ministers were chosen from his friends and adherents. Most of these men had been friendly to James; but they now abandoned him, and for their own selfish ends determined to keep Anne on the throne, and proceed with the war. Accordingly war was declared in 1702. Great Britain, Holland, Austria, and most of the smaller states of Germany were soon leagued in arms against France and Spain. Portugal and Savoy joined the league before the end of the war.

## 18. MARLBOROUGH.—II.

1. Before we proceed to describe Marlborough's campaigns, let us understand the cause of the war. Towards the end of his reign William found himself with a very difficult question to settle. Charles the Second, King of Spain, was dying without direct heirs, and no one knew what would become of his vast possessions. Lewis the Fourteenth of France claimed to succeed him, and so did the Emperor Leopold of Austria, and Joseph, a Bavarian prince. William was most anxious that his old enemy Lewis should not get the Spanish heritage, and at first the French king was not very eager to press his claim.

2. William and Lewis therefore made an arrangement by which most of the Spanish possessions went to the Bavarian prince Joseph. Unfortunately Joseph died, and the Spanish king made a will leaving the whole of his dominions—Spain and her colonies, the Spanish Netherlands (now Belgium), and parts of Italy—to Philip, Duke of Anjou, a grandson of Lewis. Lewis agreed to this arrangement; but as it seemed quite possible that Philip might one day be also King of France, and therefore possess enormous power in Europe, William opposed it altogether. He got Austria to join with England and Holland, and tried to make Lewis give a pledge that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united.

3. Early in 1701 Lewis took all the Spanish fortresses in the Netherlands, thus really making that country a part of France. When the exiled James the Second died, Lewis at once recognized his son as James the Third of

England. This insult aroused the country, and Parliament voted men and money for war. Before William could take command, death seized him, and it thus fell to Marlborough's lot to carry out his plans.

4. In 1703 Lewis found armies arrayed against him in four different countries—in the Spanish Netherlands, in South Germany, in North Italy, and in Spain. The commander of the allied British, Dutch, and Germans in the Netherlands was Marlborough, who had not yet shown his superb military genius, but had proved himself capable of uniting the jarring elements which formed his army. In North Italy the Austrian forces were under Prince Eugene of Savoy, a man of great courage and talent, who was worshipped by his men, and still lives as a hero in song. No two such generals had ever commanded armies against Lewis before.

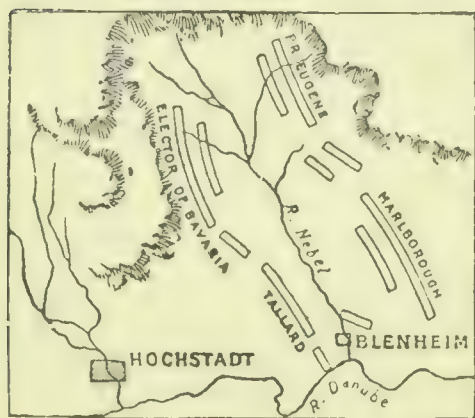
5. Marlborough was now on the threshold of his great career. He was fifty-four years old, and was about to win victories at an age when the work of most men is done. Like William, he owed little to early training and much to his natural abilities. The keynote of his greatness as a general was the vigour and boldness of his plans. His greatest drawback was the slowness of the Dutch, who refused again and again to unite in the brilliant movements which he suggested. Calm and unruffled, patient and tactful, he settled all the quarrels of his allies, and proved himself to be even greater in the council chamber than on the battlefield.

6. In the first two years of the war little was done beyond the taking of some fortresses. In 1704, however,



Lewis made a bold bid for victory. He sent the flower of his army into Bavaria, where the local troops joined them, and an attempt was made to capture Vienna. The scheme failed for the moment, but was bound to succeed before long unless prompt action was taken; so, early in 1704, Marlborough determined to make a dash for the Danube. To do this he had to march right across Germany from the Lower Rhine, while Prince Eugene had to cross the Alps from Italy. Both these undertakings were full of difficulty, but the difficulties were overcome. By his

boldness and secrecy he completely deceived his enemy, and not until he had crossed the Neckar and united his forces with those of Eugene was his real object revealed.



7. On August 13, 1704, the armies faced each other. The enemy, numbering fifty-six thousand, was posted in a strong position, with a marshy stream in front, hill country on the left, and the Danube on the right. A short distance from the great river stood the village of Blenheim, which had been strongly defended by a palisade and trench, and was occupied by Marshal Tallard's infantry. At sunrise the allies were in motion, and Eugene, with twenty thousand men, was marching through broken and wooded country towards the stream, which had to be crossed before he could attack the Bavarians on the left. Not until mid-day did his troops cross the stream, and when they faced

the enemy they were so weary that they could do little more than hold their own.

8. While Eugene was struggling on the right, the British infantry were crossing the stream on the left and falling on Blenheim. Here, too, the fight was long and indecisive. The day, however, was to be decided by a cavalry battle in the centre. Across the swamp, which the French considered impassable, Marlborough had constructed an artificial road, and in the late afternoon he crossed the river with eight thousand horsemen. Leading two furious charges in person, he completely broke the French cavalry, which fled in confusion. He then drove the French southward to the Danube, where they were obliged to drown or yield. Eleven thousand men laid down their arms, and fifteen thousand others were slain, drowned, or wounded.

9. "It was a famous victory." Austria was saved, the French were driven out of Germany, and the Elector of Bavaria was forced to make peace. The effect of the battle, however, was still greater. For half a century the French had been considered incapable of defeat; now the spell was broken. For the rest of the war Lewis had to act on the defensive, and "Malbrook" became a name of fear to every child in France. You already know how the British nation testified its gratitude towards its victorious general.

10. Elsewhere, too, fortune smiled on the British arms. The Spaniards had neglected to garrison Gibraltar, "the key of the Mediterranean," properly. A party of British sailors, taking advantage of a saint's day during which the eastern part of the fortress had been left unguarded, actually

scaled the precipice, while another party stormed the South Mole Head. In a few hours the British were in possession of the fortress, which, despite four fierce sieges, has remained in our hands ever since. No fortress has ever been more fiercely assailed than Gibraltar during the great siege, which began in 1779 and ended in 1783.

11. Next year Marlborough began to attack the great line of fortifications which then extended almost from Antwerp to Namur. He proposed to fight a decisive action near to the field of Waterloo, but was prevented by the Dutch. At the end of 1705 the position of affairs in the Netherlands was "as you were." Next year, however, Marlborough again covered himself with glory. He almost destroyed the French army at Ramillies, and made himself master of the whole of Belgium.

12. Prince Eugene also fared well in Italy, where he drove the French troops across the Alps. Austrian and British troops also entered Spain, where they met with a stubborn resistance, and made little progress. In 1708 Marlborough and Eugene won another great victory at Oudenarde. The French generals would not act together, and consequently their troops were thrown into disorder. A long running fight on the heights of Oudenarde followed, and the French right wing was cut to pieces. The remainder of the army, flying back into France, was pursued, and the fortress of Lille was captured. Lewis begged for peace; but the allies offered him terms which he could not accept, and so, much against his will, the war went on.

13. Next year (1709) Marlborough defeated the French at Malplaquet, ten miles south of Mons. The French posi-



tion was very strong, being protected on both sides by thick woods and heavy batteries. Nevertheless, Marlborough attacked it, and met with his usual success, though the victory was dearly bought with great sacrifice of human life. This was Marlborough's last triumph. The British nation was weary of the war, and ready to bring it to a close.

14. Peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713, and by the treaty then made Great Britain received Gibraltar and Minorca, which had been captured by the British fleet during the war, together with Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. It was also agreed, amongst other matters, that France and Spain should never be united under one sovereign. The gains of Great Britain were considerable, and they gave her the lead in the great race for colonial power and trade. The Peace of Utrecht is one of the most important landmarks in the onward march of our Empire.

15. Long before the treaty was signed, Marlborough, once the darling of the nation, was in dire disgrace. He had gone into the war as a Tory, but while it continued he had allied himself with the Whigs, and by 1708 the Ministry almost entirely consisted of men of his new party. Anne was at heart a Tory, and she greatly disliked the change. Indeed, she only agreed to the appointment of the Whig leader, Lord Sunderland, because Marlborough threatened to resign, and the duchess bitterly upbraided her for daring to have a will of her own. Anne was now tired of the Marlboroughs, and was only waiting for an opportunity to throw off their yoke. A Mrs. Masham, cousin of the duchess, had now become very friendly with the queen, and she encouraged Anne to rebel.



**The British Assault on the Village of Blenheim.**  
*(From the picture by Allan Stewart.)*

Brigadier Rose led the British infantry to the assault under a shower of grape and musketry, and ordered them not to fire a shot until they had struck his sword against the palisades. While the flower of the French troops were thus "held up" in the village, Marlborough, with the British cavalry, rushed in and defeated them.

16. An opportunity soon occurred. In 1710 a clergyman, named Dr. Sacheverell, in the course of a dull, foolish sermon at St. Paul's, preached the old Tory doctrine of the divine right of kings. Very foolishly the Whig ministers brought him to trial for the sermon. The trial became a great struggle between the two parties. The nation generally supported Sacheverell, and a storm of hatred arose against the Whigs. Thereupon the queen dismissed them from office, restored the Tories, sent "Mrs. Freeman" about her business, and removed Marlborough from his command.

17. The Tories, headed by Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, a traitor in the service of the "Old Pretender," now wreaked their vengeance on Marlborough. He was charged with embezzling public money, and the charge was only too true. With all his greatness, Marlborough had a sordid and miserable soul. He was perhaps the only really great man who ever loved money for its own sake.

18. Instead of answering his accusers, he fled to the Continent, where he remained in exile until news reached him of Anne's last illness. He landed at Dover on the day of her death. The new king restored him to his command and his honours, but two years later his mind and body began to give way. He spent his remaining days in riding, playing with his grandchildren, and keeping careful accounts of every penny which he spent. Even when old and infirm, it is said that he walked in order to save sixpence for a sedan-chair. He died on June 16, 1722, and was buried with great splendour in Westminster Abbey. His body, however, now rests in the chapel at Blenheim.





PARLIAMENT HOUSE, EDINBURGH.

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## 19. GREAT BRITAIN.

1. In Book IVa we visited Edinburgh, and made the old Palace of Holyrood our starting-point for the tragic story of Mary Queen of Scots. To-day we will revisit the city, and make our way to Parliament House. Its front faces the courtyard to the rear of the great Church of St. Giles. We enter the building, and speedily find ourselves in a fine hall, resembling that at Westminster. It has a massive oak roof; its windows of stained glass represent scenes from Scottish history; and its walls are adorned with paintings and statues. Up and down in never-ending procession you see advocates in wig and gown walking and talking with their clients, studying their papers, or chatting

with their friends. At the farther end of the great hall are the law courts, in which important trials are held.

2. You are sure to ask why this building, now devoted to law and lawyers, bears the name of Parliament House. It was the seat of the Scottish Parliament from 1639 to that historic day in the year 1707, when the Parliaments of Northern and Southern Britain became one, and the separate Scottish Parliament ceased to exist.

3. The Edinburgh citizens were by no means willing to give up their independence and unite with the ancient enemy south of the Border. You already know that William the Third and the English Parliament were exceedingly unpopular in Scotland. The massacre of Glencoe had raised bitter hatred against the king, and the failure of the Darien Scheme had intensified the hatred. What was the Darien Scheme? It was the idea of a great Scotsman, named William Paterson, the man who founded the Bank of England in order to meet the difficulty experienced by William the Third in raising money for the war against France. As a young man, Paterson had visited the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, and had conceived the idea of establishing a colony on it. The isthmus lies midway between Europe and China, Japan, the Spice Islands, and the East Indies. The soil was fertile, and in the neighbourhood were rich mines of precious metals; while one portion of the country, lying between Porto Bello and Cartagena, though under a tropical sun, was suitable for the habitation of white men.

4. Paterson was a very energetic man, and he soon talked the whole nation into believing in his scheme. Half



BANK OF ENGLAND, FOUNDED BY WILLIAM PATERSON, 1694.

the cash of Scotland—a sum of £400,000—was soon subscribed. To this amount England agreed to add £300,000, and Hamburg and Holland a similar sum. Scotland grew very enthusiastic, and the East India Company, now alarmed, used every effort to prevent the scheme from being carried into effect. England was induced to withdraw her promise to assist ; but the Scots, nothing daunted, determined to see the enterprise through.

5. On July 26, 1698, twelve hundred persons, some of whom were of the best blood in Scotland, set sail in five stout vessels from Leith. They arrived in Darien two months later, built a fort, and established New Edinburgh. At first they were delighted with the fruitfulness and good situation of the settlement ; but soon food failed, disease appeared, and the colony broke up. A new expedition arrived in 1699, only to find New Edinburgh in ruins.



The new-comers were attacked by the Spaniards, the ranks of the colonists were weakened by disease, and the unhappy people were forced to surrender and sail for home.

6. So ended the great Darien scheme. Of the twelve hundred who originally set out for the new colony full of courage and hope, only thirty landed on the pier of Leith. The Scottish people were bitterly angry with William and with the English Government, and said that the failure of the colony was due to national jealousy. The Jacobites strove by every means to turn this national discontent to their advantage, though they had no real hold on the mass of the people.

7. Ill-feeling grew apace, and soon there were loud cries for a full share in English trade, or for separation. In order to allay the discontent, William and Anne proposed to unite the Parliaments, and put both countries on a similar footing. An attempt was made to do this in 1703, but nothing came of it, for the English could not be persuaded to admit the Scots to equal trading rights with themselves.

8. Early in Anne's reign a crisis arose. The Scottish Parliament passed an Act of Security, which provided that on the death of the queen the king of England should not reign in Scotland unless equal rights of trade were secured to dwellers on both sides of the Border. The English Parliament thereupon passed an Act which refused to Scots in England the rights of English citizens, and even pretended to prepare for war. Reasonable men on both sides now saw that unless the old unhappy days of tumult and strife were to begin again, a real union between the two countries must take place.

9. Another Commission sat in 1706, and Articles of Union were drawn up. The English gave way on the burning question of trade, and the other matters in dispute were easily arranged. When, however, the plan for Union was presented to the Scottish Parliament there were furious debates and riotous scenes. The patriotic party proposed that there should be a Federal Union—that is, Scotland should retain her Parliament for Scottish affairs, and there should be a united Parliament for matters common to the two countries.

10. At length, however, by dint of bribery, the opponents of the Union were won over, and on May 1, 1707, the Bill of Union passed amidst the sullen wrath of the Scottish nation. “There’s an end of an auld sang,” said the chancellor, and with this ill-timed jest the Scottish Parliament came to an end. The Duke of Queensberry, who was to carry the news to England, had to be guarded by armed men to save him from being torn to pieces by the angry mob. In England he was received with every mark of national rejoicing.

11. The Act of Union declared that thenceforward England and Scotland were united into one kingdom under the name of Great Britain, and that the natives of each country should have equal rights in every respect. The “Kirk,” the Scots law, and the universities were to be retained, and one Parliament was to preside over both countries. Forty-five Scottish members, now increased to seventy-four, were to take their seats in the joint House of Commons, and sixteen elected peers in the House of Lords. The arms of England and Scotland were blended on the

royal shield and on the great seal, just as a British flag had been formed by uniting the white cross of St. Andrew with the red cross of St. George.

12. "I desire," said the queen, "and expect from my subjects of both nations that henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world that they have hearts disposed to become one people." More than a generation passed, however, before Scotsmen regarded the Union as anything but a curse. Its evils were quick to show themselves; its benefits were slow to appear.

13. Ill-feeling passed away in time, and the benefits of the Union began to be apparent. There are still some Scotsmen who believe in Home Rule for Scotland, and think the country would benefit by having its own Parliament; but there is no Scotsman who does not fully recognize that the Union has been fruitful of benefits to both countries. After the Union, Scotland's prosperity began, and Scotsmen found a new and wider career open to them. Alike in the government, the defence, the learning, and the national life of Great Britain and the British Empire, Scotsmen have since the Union played a leading part.





## 20. A GERMAN KING.

1. To-day we will visit a province of Germany which ought to be of considerable interest to us. Look at a map of Germany. Immediately south of the Danish peninsula you notice the province of Hanover, lying about the lower courses of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems. The capital of the province is the important manufacturing town of Hanover, which stands on both banks of the river Leine.

2. The old town is an irregularly-built place, with a number of interesting houses dating from the fifteenth century. We take the tram from the centre of the town, and soon find ourselves in a fine avenue of linden trees. At the end of the avenue is the Schloss or castle of Herrenhausen, the residence of the Hanoverian princes. It is surrounded by gardens adorned with Dutch statues, with fountains, pavilions, and a rustic theatre. As you wander through the gardens you suddenly come upon a statue of the Electress Sophia, who died suddenly on this spot in the year 1714. Less than two months later her kinswoman, Queen Anne, passed away.

3. Now the Electress Sophia is an outstanding name in British history. Let us examine her relationships, and learn how she came to be such an important figure. In Lesson 4 I told you something about the Princess Elizabeth, that daughter of James the First who married Frederick, the Elector Palatine. You will remember that he was the head of the German Protestants, and that he accepted, against his father-in-law's advice, the crown of Bohemia. Frederick's



HERRENHAUSEN.

*(Photo by Georg Alpers, jun., Hanover.)*

Herrenhausen Castle, Hanover, was the favourite residence of Kings George the First and George the Second. It was erected in 1698, and its gardens are a feeble copy of those at Versailles. In the grounds is a colossal statue to the Electress Sophia, upon whose heirs the English Parliament settled the crown in 1701.

reign was very brief, and was brought to a sudden end by a defeat near Prague. Frederick and his queen had thirteen children, the youngest of whom was the very Sophia whose statue we have just seen. Sophia was thus a granddaughter of James the First. When James the Second was driven from the throne of England, she was a handsome, shrewd woman of fifty-eight years of age, and for thirty years had been the wife of Ernest Augustus, the Protestant Elector of Hanover.

4. William and Mary had no children, and in 1700 Anne, who was to succeed them, lost the little boy who alone of her children had survived infancy. Sophia was now the only descendant of James the First who could ascend the throne according to the terms of the Bill of Rights, which laid down the law that the British sovereign must be a Protestant. Accordingly, in 1701, the Act

of Settlement was passed. Parliament settled the crown on Sophia and her heirs, and thus she became the founder of the Hanoverian line which occupies the British throne to-day. When Queen Anne died, Sophia's son, George, who had been Elector of Hanover for sixteen years, became King of Great Britain and Ireland. Thus began that connection between this country and Hanover which lasted down to the accession of Queen Victoria.

5. The Jacobites were very active during the closing years of Queen Anne's reign. You already know that after the queen's famous quarrel with "Mrs. Freeman" she put herself in the hands of the Tories, who were friendly to the Jacobite cause. At the time of Queen Anne's death there was a Tory Ministry in power, with Viscount Bolingbroke at its head. As soon as the news of the queen's death arrived a Privy Council was summoned; but to the dismay of the Tory members, three dukes—Shrewsbury, Somerset, and Argyll, the first of them a Tory in favour of the Act of Settlement, and the other two Whigs—appeared uninvited, and claimed to take part in the proceedings as members of the Council. Other Privy Councillors were called in, with the result that the Tories were outvoted, the Whigs seized the reins of government, and all danger of a Jacobite king passed away.

6. The only excuse for the presence of George the First on the British throne was the impossibility of the Stuarts. They were devout and sincere Roman Catholics, and the nation had determined to be ruled by a Protestant sovereign. George the First was simply king because there was no suitable prince of the old house. He never regarded him-



self as anything else. “‘Loyalty,’ he must think,” says Thackeray, “‘as applied to me—it is absurd! There are fifty nearer heirs to the throne than I am. I am but an accident, and you fine Whig gentlemen take me for your own sake, not for mine. You Tories hate me.’”

7. George was King of Great Britain and Ireland for thirteen years; yet he was never at home in this country, and was never once fully assured of his crown. He could not speak the English language; he disliked his British subjects and their ways; and he was totally ignorant of politics. He knew so little about British affairs and British methods of government that he was obliged to rely wholly upon the Whig statesmen who had placed him on the throne. During George's reign the Whigs obtained such power that they practically ruled the country for the next fifty-six years.



NO. 10 DOWNING STREET.  
The residence of the Prime Minister.

8. Now, thanks to the political ignorance of this German king, a remarkable change in the method of governing the country had its beginnings in his reign.

Come with me to Whitehall, which we have already visited. Near the south end of it is a little street, opening at the top into a small square, in which there stands a simple mansion of dull, brown brick, bearing no outward sign of special importance. Nevertheless, 10 Downing Street is perhaps the most important residence in the whole land. In it lives the Prime Minister, the head of the Government, and, next to the Archbishop of Canterbury, the first subject of the kingdom. Close at hand is the fine building which contains, amongst other important State departments, the Foreign Office. Within the Foreign Office the meetings of the Cabinet are usually held.

9. Now what is this Cabinet? From an early period the kings of England were assisted by a Privy Council called together by the sovereign, and consisting of men from whom they could seek advice in the work of government. Gradually this Council became too large for the purpose, and then the king began to resort for advice to a small knot of leading ministers, who formed a kind of "inner ring" known as the Cabinet, because their meetings were held in an inner room or "cabinet" of the Council apartments.

10. The ministers who formed this "inner ring," and indeed all the ministers who managed the affairs of State, were then regarded as simply the servants of the sovereign, to be appointed or dismissed at his or her pleasure. Under Charles the Second and James the Second the Cabinet consisted mainly of the king's friends, who were pledged to uphold him against the rest of the Council. They were appointed and removed at the king's pleasure. Even easy-

going Queen Anne had been accustomed to remove her great officers of State without asking the advice of either the rest of the Cabinet or Parliament. A modern Cabinet, however, is on an entirely different footing, though it is still supposed to be a committee of the Privy Council.

11. After a general election, the leader of the party which has obtained a majority at the polls is "sent for" by the king and asked to form a Ministry. If he agrees to do so, he selects from the leading members of Parliament who support him a number of noblemen and gentlemen who undertake to fill the various great offices of the State. These men form a Ministry, of which the Prime Minister is the head. From the Ministry he makes a further selection of those who are to form the "Cabinet." Thus each member of the Cabinet has a threefold duty: he is a member of Parliament; he is the head of a department of State; and he is a member of the small "inner ring" which practically governs the country.

12. The Cabinet, thus formed, meets from time to time in private, and its proceedings are secret. It stands or falls as a whole, and is jointly responsible to Parliament for all acts of government. A vote of censure passed on any minister is a vote against the Cabinet, which thereupon resigns, and makes way for a new Cabinet which has the confidence of the House of Commons. No one but the Prime Minister can appoint a member of the Cabinet, and no one but the Prime Minister can ask a member to resign. When Queen Anne died, the modern method of selecting the members of the Cabinet did not exist, nor was its "oneness" recognized



13. Now what was the great change which had its beginnings in the reign of George the First? As you already know, he was ignorant of the British system of government and of the English language. His powerful minister, Walpole, knew neither German nor French, and so King and Prime Minister had to talk in Latin, which neither of them understood well. George could



WALPOLE.

no longer preside at the meetings of the Cabinet, and he did not care enough for Britain to concern himself with its public affairs.

14. Thus the king lost his right to preside over the "Cabinet," which gradually became the most important and powerful body in the country. It took the work of government entirely out of the king's

hands ; the king no longer ruled, but reigned. Within the seventy years following the accession of George the First the Cabinet took its modern shape. It was selected from members of Parliament belonging to the party having a majority in the House of Commons ; it became united in responsibility, and its members acted not as individuals but as one body.

## 21. WALPOLE.

1. The starting-point for our lesson to-day is the Royal Exchange, which stands opposite the Bank of England. The magnificent building in which the greater part of the business of the Metropolis is conducted is the third of the kind which has occupied the site. The first was founded by Sir Thomas Gresham, a famous Elizabethan merchant, who did much to foster the vast commerce on which our greatness as a nation depends. Sir Thomas Gresham's building was destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666, and a similar fate overtook its successor in 1838.

2. Close to the Exchange is 'Change Alley, a little street of offices where bareheaded clerks come and go, and nothing exciting now takes place. Standing in this alley, let us recall the state of extraordinary excitement, almost amounting to national madness, which overtook the nation and wrought such widespread ruin and misery in the year 1720.

3. For several years after the Peace of Utrecht a passion for money speculation grew up, not only in England, but in other parts of Europe. In 1711 a company, known as the South Sea Company, had been formed to carry on trade with Spanish America and the countries of the Pacific. The company had been very successful, and its shares were so eagerly sought after that they rose to a high price. The directors now put forward a vast plan for making themselves the greatest trading concern in the world.

4. They offered the Government seven millions of money if it would hand over to them the management of the National Debt. The directors did not expect a profit from

their management of the debt, but they thought that they would be able to persuade the people who had lent money to the Government to exchange their Government stock for shares in the South Sea Company. In this way they hoped to get together such a large capital that they would be able to carry on trade with all the world and reap huge profits.

5. This was a wild, mad scheme, but the leading members of the Government thought it was likely to be successful, and they agreed to the proposal. Almost at once the value of South Sea shares went up by leaps and bounds. False reports about the vast profits of the company began to circulate, and a terrible fever of gambling possessed the people. Every one who could lay his or her hands on money rushed to 'Change Alley to buy South Sea stock. Men drew their money out of their banks or businesses, county squires sold their houses and lands, courtiers parted with their jewels and other valuables, widows turned their annuities into ready money, and 'Change Alley from early morning until late evening was thronged with men and women of all sorts and conditions eager to pay enormous prices for a share in the company which promised such vast returns. In a few weeks the £100 shares were worth £1,000.

6. At once all sorts of companies were floated, some of them real and serious, but most of them mere swindles. A rascal, for example, would take a room in 'Change Alley, or even a table in the open street, and announce a new company for discovering perpetual motion, for planting mulberry trees and breeding silkworms in Chelsea Park, for fattening hogs by a new process, for discovering the land of Ophir, for engaging in a secret undertaking



“which shall in due time be revealed,” or for some other ridiculous project; and people would flock to him and clamour to buy his shares. In the evening the promoter, with his pockets full of money, would quietly disappear, and nothing more would be heard of him. No one thought for a moment of inquiring whether these new concerns were genuine or practical; thousands of persons were ready to part with their money in exchange for worthless scraps of paper.

7. These “bubble companies,” of course, began to burst immediately, and large numbers of people were ruined. Then investors in the South Sea Company began to take fright, and were ready to part with their shares at any price. Before long the shares which had sold readily at £1,000 were as low as £135. The company could not pay the seven millions promised to the Government, and had to suspend payment. A loud cry of rage and despair went up from those who were ruined, and vengeance was called down upon the Government, which had lent its sanction to the scheme.

8. Parliament ordered an inquiry, and discovered that all sorts of persons in high places had made fortunes out of the company. Not only members of the Court, but the Prince of Wales, and even the ministers themselves, had helped to blow up the “bubble,” and had sold out their shares at a vast profit before it vanished into thin air. One minister committed suicide; and another minister, when attacked in the House of Lords for his share in the matter, fell down in a fit and died. The Government was driven from office, and the nation turned to the only man



The South Sea Bubble: A Scene in 'Change Alley in 1720.  
(From the painting by W. Verelstam, R.A., in the Tate Gallery.)



who was capable of saving all that could be saved from the wreck.

9. Who was this man? He was Sir Robert Walpole, a big, rough Norfolk baronet of the John Bull type, who had entered Parliament twenty years before, and had made a place for himself in politics as a stalwart Whig during the reign of Queen Anne. He had already held office, but had been sent to the Tower on a charge of "high breach of trust." In defending himself he had issued a pamphlet which showed him to be "the best master of figures of any man of his time." Walpole had all along denounced the "South Sea Bubble," though he had managed to make a good deal out of it. He was no better and no worse than the men of his time, but he had great political ability, a remarkable knowledge of finance, an unusual share of sound common sense, and a wonderful tact in managing men.

10. To him at this terrible crisis the nation turned. Walpole became the first man in the Government, and was soon ready with a plan for dealing with the national disaster. He proposed to remit the seven millions due to the Government by the company; seize the estates of the directors to the amount of two million pounds, and distribute this and what remained of the company's capital amongst the holders of South Sea shares. This was the best that could be done, and, thanks to Walpole's ability, the disaster was not so great as it was at first expected to be. The "South Sea Bubble" was thus indirectly the means of placing Walpole in the highest seat of power. He held office practically without a break for twenty-one



years, and during that time he was the real ruler of the country.

11. Walpole made himself absolute master of the Whig party, and obtained great influence over the king and the House of Commons. His enemies said, not without truth, that he won and maintained his majority in Parliament by bribery; but the people generally believed that he knew better than any one else what was good for them, and therefore they supported him heartily.

12. George the First died in 1727, and early in the reign of his son, George the Second, Walpole regained the power he had wielded in the former reign. He encouraged trade and industry by removing many of the burdensome customs on goods imported into or exported from the country. In his relations with foreign powers Walpole did his best to maintain peace, and in this he succeeded for many years. He was, however, forced to declare war against Spain (1739), for that country claimed the right of searching British vessels trading off the coasts of Spanish America, and was said to have treated British sailors barbarously. "Ring your bells now," Walpole said, when he heard the Londoners rejoicing that war had broken out; "you will be wringing your hands soon."

13. Walpole knew that a war with Spain would mean a war with France as well. He had always opposed war, nevertheless he did not resign, but held on to office, and waged a war of which he thoroughly disapproved. In this lies the most serious stain on his character. Not until 1742 did he resign and retire to the House of Lords as the Earl of Orford.

## 22. THE "'FORTY-FIVE."—I.

1. To-day we will visit that Scottish battlefield on which the Jacobite cause was crushed for ever. We speed northward to Inverness, the "capital of the Highlands." It is a busy, prosperous town in a fair and fertile valley, through which flows a river, broad, swift, and clear. Here we find ourselves at the chief eastern portal to the Northern Highlands. We do not linger in Inverness, though it has many objects of interest to show us, but make it the starting-point for a visit to Culloden, or Drummossie Moor, some five miles away. The greater part of the moor has now been planted with firs, but some of it remains as it was on the fatal day when one of the most romantic chapters in all British history came to a terrible close.

2. Let us stand by yonder cairn, built of stones formerly scattered about the moor, and read the inscription: "The battle of Culloden was fought on this moor, 16th April 1746. The graves of the gallant Highlanders who fought for Scotland and Prince Charlie are marked by the names of their clans." Near at hand are many small cairns marking the graves of the dead. Standing on this dreary moor, the death-scene of the Jacobite cause, let us learn what led up to the disastrous defeat.

3. In the last lesson I told you how Walpole, against his better judgment, was driven into war with Spain. His successors were soon to be faced with that European struggle which he had foreseen as the outcome of war with Spain. During the previous year the "War of the Austrian Succession" had broken out on the Continent. The Emperor,



THE CAIRN ON CULLODEN MOOR.  
(*From the picture by G. Vuillier.*)



Charles the Sixth, was the last male of his house, and he left his great dominions—Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, the Austrian Netherlands, Milan and Parma in Italy—to his daughter Maria Theresa. He had persuaded the Powers to agree to this arrangement, but no sooner was he dead than princes rose up to overthrow his daughter. The attack on her was led by Frederick the Second, the young King of Prussia, and by Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, each of whom claimed a part of the Austrian dominions. Frederick was a most ambitious man, with the best disciplined army in Europe at his back. In 1741, without troubling to declare war, he flung this army on the Austrian province of Silesia and captured it.

4. The Powers now began to take sides in the quarrel. France and Spain, eager for a share of the spoil, threw in their lot with the Elector of Bavaria, and the Austrian dominions were attacked at so many points and by so many foes that Maria Theresa was in a most desperate plight. George the Second was anxious for the safety of his dearly-beloved Hanover, and Britain was alarmed at the prospect of an increase of French power, especially at the expense of our old ally Austria. In 1742 the British Parliament voted Maria Theresa a large sum of money, and the next year sent an Anglo-Hanoverian army into Flanders to support her cause.

5. George the Second, whatever his faults, was a brave man and a fearless soldier, and he now took command of the army in person. He moved along the right bank of the river Main to attack the flank of the French army which was invading Austria, but found himself so beset by



#### BATTLE OF FONTENOY.

(From the picture by *Felix Philippoteaux* in the *Victoria and Albert Museum*.)

This battle, fought on May 11, 1745, at the Belgian village of Fontenoy, five miles south-east of Tournay, was one of the most important battles in the war of the Austrian Succession. The French, under Mar-hal Saxe, were opposed by a smaller allied army consisting of British, Dutch, and Austrians. The nominal commander-in-chief was George, Duke of Cumberland, but he had practically no authority over his Dutch and Austrian colleagues. Marshal Saxe was in a strongly entrenched position, and several direct attacks failed. At last Cumberland formed most of his British and Hanoverian troops into a single heavy column, 14,000 strong, and advanced. A terrible cannonade was directed against him, and he was assailed on the flank by the Irish Brigade. The Dutch did not support him, and he was forced to retire, leaving four thousand dead behind him. There was no flight, but a steady and masterly retreat.

the superior number of his foes that he was forced to retreat.

6. The French commander, on the opposite bank of the river, outmarched the British king, and seized the entrance to a narrow valley through which the British army was forced to pass. George saw that his only hope of safety lay in an attempt to cut his way through the ranks of the enemy. At the head of his men he led a rapid rush of foot-soldiers, who at the point of the bayonet drove the French into the Main with great loss, and thus secured a desperate victory. The battle, which was fought on June 27, 1743, is known as Dettingen, from the name of a neighbouring village. It was the last battle in which a British king was under fire.

7. Soon afterwards the French invaded the Austrian Netherlands, and a British force was sent to assist the Dutch. Their general quarrelled with George, Duke of Cumberland, younger son of George the Second; and when the enemy was faced at Fontenoy, in the neighbourhood of Malplaquet, the scene of Marlborough's great victory, the brunt of the fighting fell on the British and Hanoverian troops. The British made a magnificent advance under a tremendous fire, but they were compelled to retreat. The victory was largely due to the "Irish Brigade" of the French army. A monument on the battlefield now commemorates their gallantry. Cumberland brought off his army without great loss, for the enemy was too severely handled to pursue him in force.

8. Now came the Jacobite opportunity. Three months after the guns of Fontenoy had ceased to thunder, the





BONNIE PRINCE CHARLIE.  
(From the painting by John Pettie, R.A.)

"Young Pretender," Charles Edward, grandson of James the Second, was in Scotland rousing the clans to that romantic "forlorn hope" in which the Highlanders, by their gallantry and devotion, earned an undying fame.

9. "Bonnie Prince Charlie," gay, light-hearted, active, robust, and adventurous, was a strange contrast to his father, who had led a hopeless rising in 1715, and had dismally failed. From his boyhood he had dreamed of winning back the throne of his fathers, and had pined for the hour when he should set foot on British soil. In 1744 the French king invited him to accompany a French fleet which was to invade the country; but the wind and waves, never kindly to the Stuarts, drove it back. Weary of waiting for further French assistance, he now determined to stake his all on a desperate adventure.

10. With a little privateer, fifteen hundred muskets, twenty small cannon, eighteen hundred swords, some barrels of gunpowder, and a fast brig called the *Doutelle*, he set sail on July 13, 1745. A fight with a British ship drove the privateer back to harbour; but the *Doutelle*, with Charles on board, sailed on, and arrived off the islet of Eriskay between Barra and South Uist.

11. So slender were the chances of success that at first the Highland chiefs refused to assist him. One by one, however, carried away by the earnestness and charm of the young prince, they agreed to draw the sword in his cause, and on the nineteenth of August the clans met at Glenfinnan, where a monument now stands, and unfurled his banner of white, red, and blue silk to the breeze. Charles had soon two thousand devoted clansmen at his back.



## 23. THE "'FORTY-FIVE."—II.

1. On the very day when the prince's banner was unfurled, Sir John Cope, the commander of the royal forces in Scotland, moved northward with three thousand men, mainly newly-raised recruits, for well-nigh the whole British army was overseas in Flanders. Cope, who was a thoroughly incompetent general, hoped to relieve the small bodies of troops stationed at Fort-William and Fort-Augustus. When, however, he reached the rocky steeps of Corry-Arrack leading to Fort-Augustus, he found the clansmen in possession of the pass. Turning aside, he marched towards Inverness, and thus left the southern road open.

2. With banners flying, bagpipes skirling, and drums beating, the Highland host pushed on towards Perth. The prince rode at their head, and every day he grew in favour with his followers. His frank, manly air and his gallant bearing completely won the hearts of the Highlanders, and their spirits rose with every mile they marched. Opposition melted away before him. Stirling Castle sent a few ineffective shots towards him as he crossed the Forth and proceeded towards Edinburgh. On the seventeenth of September he was in possession of the Scottish capital without striking a blow.

3. Forthwith "King James the Eighth" was proclaimed at the Mercat Cross by the heralds in all their finery, and the prince took up his abode in Holyrood Palace, where balls and banquets were held. The time, however, was not suitable for such scenes of gaiety. Cope had embarked his troops at Inverness, and had sailed south for Dunbar, where



he had landed his forces. Charles determined to give him battle at once.

4. By night he led his army along the ridge of high ground towards Inveresk, and at Prestonpans saw the royal troops encamped on the narrow plain between the hills and the sea. A deep morass lay between the two hosts ; but in the middle of the night a local gentleman led the Highlanders silently along a pathway which avoided the soft ground, and brought them down to the plain face to face with the foe. When day broke the Highlanders charged furiously, and in six minutes the battle was lost and won. Cope's army was in flight, and Charles had captured his cannon and baggage and seventeen hundred prisoners.

5. For six weeks after the victory Charles lay in Edinburgh, holding councils and drilling his troops by day, and dancing gaily by night in the oaken gallery of Holyrood, where his kinswoman, the unhappy Queen of Scots, had held her Court. Not until the last day of October did Charles begin his march on England, in the full hope that his easy conquest of Scotland would be repeated over the Border. No sign of the expected rising, however, met the invaders as they marched southward. The Highlanders began to desert, and his troops grew daily less in numbers. A few recruits joined his standard at Preston, but it was already evident that his dream of an English rising was vain.

6. Throughout the long disappointing march the prince was the very soul of his army. His tact, his endurance, and unfailing good-humour endeared him more and more to his faithful but dwindling followers. The farther his army



"A STRAGGLER OF THE '45."  
(By W. Hole, R.S.A.)

marched south the colder was his reception, until by the time he reached Derby, one hundred and thirty miles from London, his failure was patent to all. The Duke of Cumberland had an army at Lichfield, there was a second army in his rear, and a third on Finchley Common. The wiser of the Jacobite leaders now advised a return to Scotland, and Charles was reluctantly obliged to give the order to retreat. Homeward, in straggling sullen groups, the Highlanders retraced their steps with the foe hard at their heels. On the twentieth of December the Highland army stood once more on Scottish ground.

7. Eight days later Charles marched to Stirling, at the head of the largest army which he had ever commanded. Leaving a small party to watch the castle, he hurried southwards, and at Falkirk met General Hawley, who was advancing with a royalist army to the relief of the castle. Here again the young prince was victorious; but hardly had the smoke cleared away from the battlefield before quarrels broke out amongst the Highland leaders, and Charles was forced to retreat. The Highlanders, laden with booty, returned to their homes, and Charles pushed northward to Inverness, followed by the Duke of Cumberland with a strong force of royalist troops.

8. Now we reach the battlefield of Culloden, where our lesson began. When Cumberland was at Nairn, the Highlanders lay on the moor, weary and worn with their long toilsome march, and ill-prepared for battle. Lord George Murray proposed a night attack on the duke's army, and suggested the fifteenth of April as the most suitable date, because it was Cumberland's birthday, and sure to be an

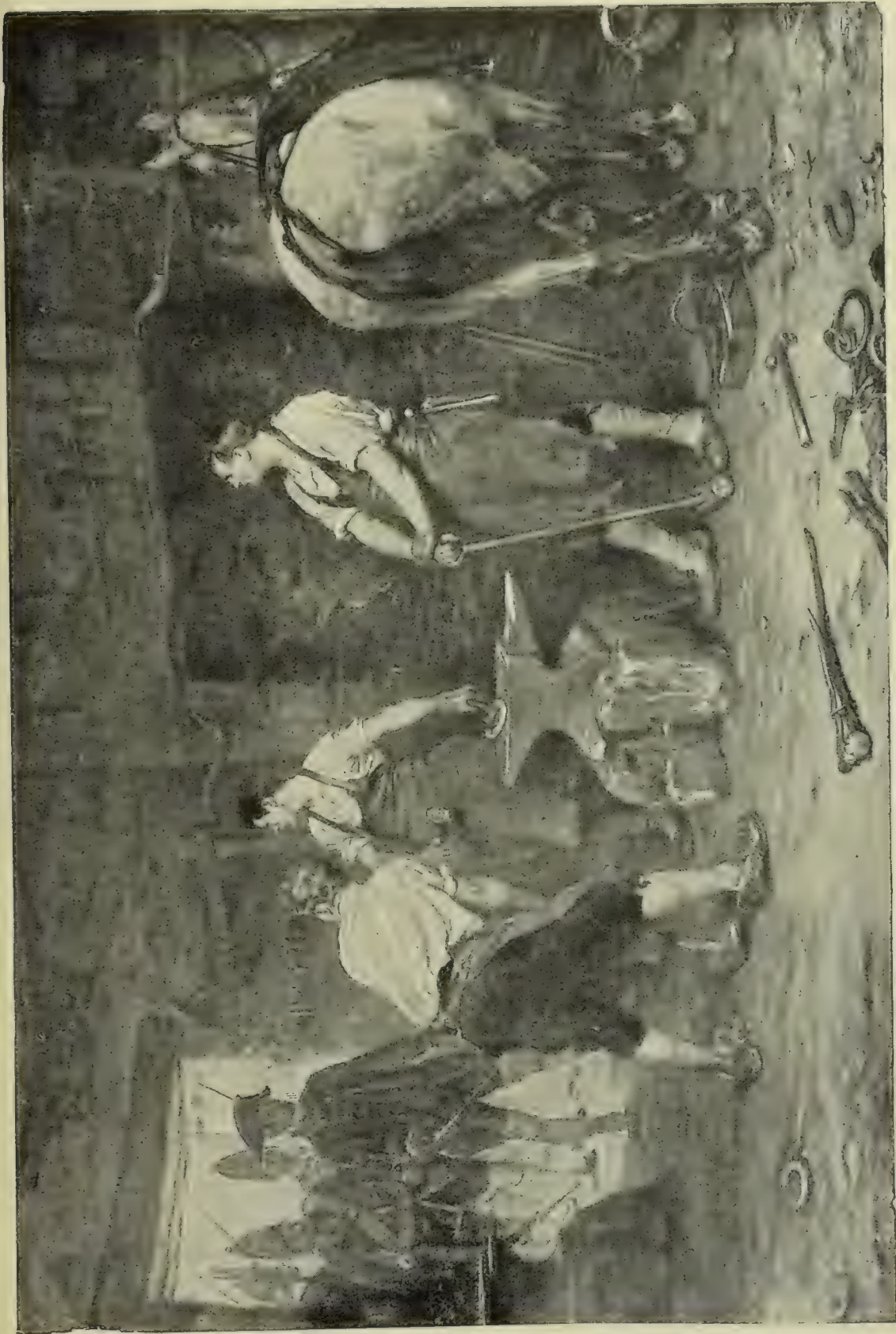


occasion for merry-making in the English camp. Charles agreed to the proposal, and the march began; but so weary and hungry were the Highlanders that no less than fifty halts had to be called in eight miles. At two in the morning, the time fixed for the attack, the Highlanders were still four miles from the English camp. Cumberland's men had already roused themselves, and the Jacobite host had to retreat wearily to Culloden once more.

9. The final hour had come. Cumberland advanced with his ten thousand men, fresh, ardent, well fed, and well equipped, and the battle was decided before it was begun. At a distance of a third of a mile the English guns opened fire, making blood-red lanes through the Highlanders. They stood their ground for an hour, then charged and broke the first line, but the turning of their flank involved them in defeat. The cause of the Stuarts was lost for ever. One part of the army surrendered; the remainder melted away into the glens and corries from which they had issued to fight for Prince Charlie.

10. "Butcher" Cumberland took such a cruel vengeance on the defeated foe that he well deserves his nickname. You may still see in the graveyard at Inverness the stones on which his soldiers rested their muskets as they shot down their kneeling victims. Several Scottish lords were beheaded, and measures were taken to prevent a similar rising in future. The tartan and kilt were forbidden articles of dress, the clan system was broken up, and military roads opened the Highlands to the rapid march of troops.

11. Meanwhile "Bonnie Prince Charlie" was a fugitive. For months he encountered hairbreadth escapes and count-



AFTER CULLODEN : ROYALIST SOLDIERS SEARCHING FOR JACOBITE FUGITIVES.  
(From the picture by John Seymour Lucas, R. A., in the Tate Gallery. By permission of Messrs. Frost and Reed.)



less perils by land and sea. His life was made up of days of hiding in the heather and nights of hunger, cold, fatigue, and anxiety in mountain caves. Yet by the magnificent loyalty of the Highlanders he escaped again and again, and at last found safety on board a French man-of-war at the very spot where he had landed fourteen months before. The English cruisers were eluded during a fog, and the prince landed in France on September 29, 1746.

12. The loyalty of the Highlanders to Prince Charlie has never been surpassed. Though he had brought them to ruin and to the verge of the scaffold, and though £30,000 was the price set on his head, not one of the poor wretched clansmen ever dreamed of betraying him. Instead of giving information and securing the proffered reward, they would come to his hiding-places by night with warnings and little gifts of newspapers and cakes of gingerbread. As a memorial of his gallant attempt to win the throne of his fathers, we have those spirited and tender Jacobite songs which have become a part of our literature.

13. The later years of "Bonnie Prince Charlie" were sad indeed. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which ended the war in October 1748, flung him homeless upon Europe. Neither France nor Spain would give him shelter. For many years he moved about like a cloud, probably finding his way more than once to England. Giving way to drink, he sank deeper and deeper into the mire. Alas! that a youth of such winning gifts and bright hopes should have found a drunkard's grave. He died in January 1788.





**A Royal Fugitive.**  
(From the picture by Allan Stewart. Exhibited in the Royal Academy, 1907.)

## 24. CLIVE, 'THE DARING IN WAR.'—I.

1. To-day we are to visit Market Drayton, a quiet little country town of Shropshire. There is not much in the place to attract our special attention, except the fine old Gothic Church of St. Mary, and the grammar school, which was founded as far back as the reign of Queen Mary. Let us make our way to the church and look up at the lofty tower. Some time in the year 1736 most of the inhabitants of the town were engaged in a similar occupation. They were gazing up at this tower with open mouths and staring eyes, expecting every moment to see an accident take place. A small boy of eleven years of age was sitting astride one of the sandstone dragons of the tower. With sinking hearts and many a gasp of terror they saw the daring lad perched at that dizzy height waving his cap in wild glee. No doubt many mothers and fathers in the town foretold the gallows as a suitable end for the young rascal who had thus set their hearts fluttering.

2. He was well known in the town, this idle young scapegrace. At the grammar school "Bob Clive" was the leader of all the mischief. In the schoolroom he was the dunce of his class; in the playground he was unchallenged leader. In the village he and his friends played havoc with the tradesmen's windows. Fighting was his great delight, and he was always ready to use his fists. He had won, and deserved to win, the character of a thoroughly naughty boy. What was to become of him? Little did his friends and relatives dream that he was to become one

of the greatest heroes of history, and the founder of our vast Indian Empire.

3. Robert Clive, the boy to whom we have thus been introduced, was born at Styche, near Market Drayton, in the year 1725. He was the eldest of thirteen children, and, as you have already learned, was remarkable for his courage and his love of fighting and mischief. When he was eighteen his parents, almost at their wits' end to know what to do with him, gladly accepted the offer of a clerkship in the service of the East India Company, and shipped the scapegrace off to India.

4. The East India Company, in whose service he now was, had been established as far back as the days of Queen Elizabeth. It was founded for trade, and it had attended closely to business. Its territory in India consisted of a few square miles of land, for which rent was paid to native rajas. Its troops were scarcely sufficient to man the four or five ill-constructed forts which had been erected at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and a few other places, to protect the warehouses. Most of the soldiers in the service of the Company were natives, and were neither furnished with European weapons nor disciplined according to European methods. The white servants of the Company were simply traders, whose business it was to make advances to manufacturers, ship cargoes, and in other ways advance the business interests of their employers. Most of the younger clerks were miserably paid, while the elder ones enriched themselves by trading on their own account.

5. A French East India Company had also been founded, but at the outset it met with much less success than the



corresponding English Company. At the close of the seventeenth century it possessed little more than the small town of Pondicherry, which still remains in the hands of the French. At this time the Moguls—that is, the descendants of the Mohammedan conquerors of Northern India—were masters of the land ; but a few years later their power fell to pieces, and India was splintered into feeble little kingdoms. The land was given over to civil war ; every nawab or governor quarrelled and fought with his neighbours. Seeing the feebleness of the rulers and the disturbed state of the country, the European traders began to strive for conquest. Hitherto they had been merely competitors for commerce ; soon they were to become rivals for empire.

6. Now let us return to Clive. He was very homesick and depressed during the long voyage round the Cape, and when he arrived in India he had spent all his money and was in debt. He was stationed at Fort St. George, Madras, where he was wretchedly lodged and badly paid, and engaged in duties ill-suited to his daring nature. On more than one occasion he got into scrapes and was reproved. He attempted suicide, but twice the pistol which he snapped at his own head failed to go off. "It appears I am destined for something," he said, and his prophecy proved true. In the year of his arrival in India war was declared by Britain against France, and the struggle in Europe led to the long fight for mastery in India.

7. Dupleix, the French Governor of Pondicherry, was a man of great ambition, and he now strove to found a great French Empire in India. Himself an able soldier, he made two most important discoveries. First, he observed

that the native armies could not stand against men disciplined in the European fashion ; and, secondly, he perceived that the natives could be brought under European discipline by European officers. Forthwith he began to enlist Sepoys or native soldiers, and to arm and discipline them after the French manner. With these Sepoys he intended to be a party to the disputes of the native rulers, and by taking first this side and then that, gradually win India for France.

8. A French expedition appeared before Madras, captured Fort St. George, and seized the contents of the warehouses as prize of war. Some of the servants of the British Company, including Clive, were marched through the streets of Pondicherry and treated shamefully. Clive, in the disguise of a Mohammedan, managed to escape from the town by night and make his way to Fort St. David, a small British settlement in Madras. Here he begged to be allowed to throw down his pen and take up the sword. His request was granted, and as an ensign at the age of twenty-one he entered upon his military career.

9. He took part in Admiral Boscawen's unsuccessful siege of Pondicherry, where he distinguished himself by his bravery, and in his twenty-fifth year was promoted to be a captain. Shortly after the failure at Pondicherry the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, of which you read in the last lesson, was signed. Nevertheless, there was but a short interval of peace in India ; for though Britain and France were supposed to have sheathed the sword, a great struggle for power was about to begin both in India and in America. Before long there was open war, which at first went greatly in favour of France.

10. Dupleix, continuing his rapid and brilliant career, had managed to get his own candidates placed on the thrones of the great native states of Hyderabad and the Carnatic. Thus he was practically master of South India. Civil war, however, continued in the Carnatic, where the French nominee was besieging Trichinopoly, the last stronghold of his rival. Trichinopoly was about to fall, and its fall would mean the complete supremacy of the French in India. At this critical moment Clive persuaded the Governor of Madras to entrust him with a small force of three hundred Sepoys, armed and disciplined after the European fashion, and with them he marched to attack Arcot, the capital of the nawab whom Dupleix was supporting. By doing this he hoped to draw off the nawab's forces from the siege of Trichinopoly.

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## 25. CLIVE, "THE DARING IN WAR."—II.

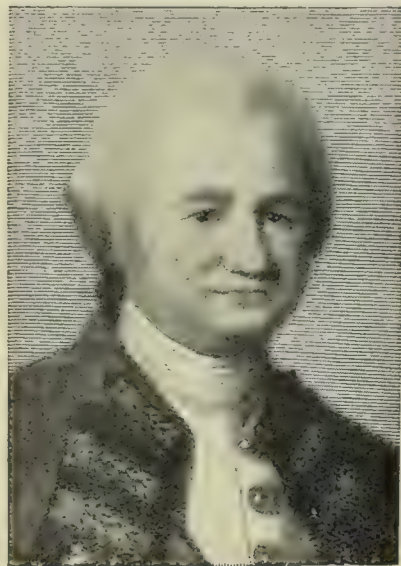
1. Clive marched his men through a violent thunderstorm, and attacked Arcot with such vigour that the garrison fled in panic, leaving the citadel in his hands without striking a blow. Then Clive in his turn was besieged by the native allies of France for eleven long weeks. He held out, though the place was ill-adapted to stand a siege, and his men were all but starved. At last, after a desperate attack, in which elephants were used to batter down the gates, the besiegers were driven back, and Clive had achieved the first of his successes. Within the next three years he was to establish British supremacy in India.

2. Clive proved himself a born leader of men. He



gained such a complete hold over his Sepoys that they followed him in the most desperate of enterprises. When they discovered, during the siege of Arcot, that all the provisions were exhausted except a little rice, they begged him and his fellow-officers to take the rice and leave them the water in which it had been boiled. His fearless courage gained him the native name of Sabat Jung, "the daring in war." His renown speedily spread throughout India, and before long his marvellous energy and skill had completely undone the work of Dupleix.

3. In 1753, worn out by anxiety and fatigue, Clive returned to England. He had gone out ten years before a friendless, wayward boy; he now returned, at the age of twenty-eight, to find himself renowned as one of Britain's most famous soldiers. Naturally, his father and the other members of his family were overjoyed to learn that naughty, idle Bobby had developed



CLIVE.

*From the picture in the  
National Portrait Gallery.)*

into a great man. With his prize-money Clive helped to pay off some of his father's debts and to redeem the family estate.

4. Now we must turn from the fortunes of Clive to watch the progress of affairs in Europe. At home a statesman was rapidly becoming very powerful. This was William Pitt, afterwards the Earl of Chatham, a man of great ability and a wonderful orator, who desired to make Britain supreme among the nations. He was the very

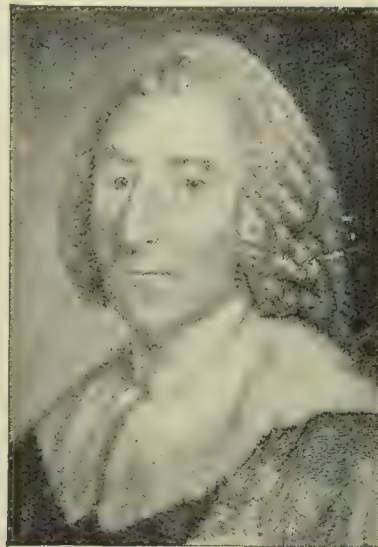
opposite of Walpole, whom he had bitterly opposed. Walpole was, as you know, the firm friend of peace and trade ; Pitt was all for military glory.

5. When Walpole fell, Pitt was not included in the Government, owing to the strong dislike which George the Second entertained towards him. In the year 1746 the ministers resigned, chiefly because they were not permitted to add Pitt to their number. The king was obliged to give way, and Pitt entered the Ministry, though in a minor post. He was dismissed in 1755, but returned to office in the next year, only to be again dismissed six months later. Nevertheless, his popularity was so great that the king was obliged to recall him. Though not yet Prime Minister, he was the real head of the Ministry, and by far the greatest man in it.

6. Now in the year 1756 a great European war, known as the "Seven Years' War," broke out. You remember that the ambitious Frederick, King of Prussia, had conquered Silesia during the War of the Austrian Succession. Maria Theresa was resolved not to give up Silesia without a struggle. She succeeded in persuading France, Russia, and Poland to help her ; while Britain, abandoning her cause, formed an alliance with Prussia, and fought against her. At first the war went against us, and disaster followed disaster. A British fleet fought an indecisive action off Minorca and withdrew, and Byng, its admiral, was shot on his own quarter-deck, "to encourage the others," as a witty Frenchman observed. Frederick was beaten, and Cumberland, at Klosterseven, was forced to make a disgraceful surrender.

7. At this juncture (July 1757) Pitt became responsible

for the conduct of the war. "I am sure," he said, "that I can save this country, and that nobody else can ;" and his boast was no idle one. A new and brilliant era now opened for British arms. Pitt was the first British statesman who set himself in real earnest to extend the British possessions beyond the seas. His policy was to keep France busily employed in European warfare, while he tore from her grasp her great dominions in India and America. He paid Frederick large sums to enable him to oppose the French on European battlefields, while British forces operated on and beyond the seas. "I am conquering Canada," he said, "on the plains of Germany." He conducted the war with such energy and resolution, chose his commanders so well, and inspired them with so much of his own patriotism, that everywhere defeat was turned into victory. "Nobody entered his room," said one of his commanders, "who did not leave it a braver man."



CHATHAM.

*(From the picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)*

8. With the progress of the war in America we shall deal in the next lesson. Here we must return to Clive, who had only just arrived in India in 1756, after his visit to England, when terrible news was brought to him. Suraj-ud-Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, had, in his absence, attacked the British settlement at Calcutta and seized one hundred and forty-six persons.



9. These he thrust into the "Black Hole," a room measuring only eighteen feet by fourteen, and locked them up for the night. They had no air, save from two narrow, barred windows, and in the stifling heat of a Bengal June most of the prisoners perished. When the awful night had passed and the doors were opened, only twenty-three of the poor creatures staggered out alive. Clive hastened to Bengal to punish the nawab for this awful outrage.

10. He had nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred Sepoys with him to oppose Suraj-ud-Dowlah's great army. After a short, sharp fight, the enemy fled in utter confusion, leaving baggage, guns, and cattle in the hands of the victors. This battle of Plassey, fought on June 23, 1757, secured Bengal, the richest province of India, for the British. After the battle, the East India Company continued its conquests. It completely crushed the power of the French, and under later governors gained the mastery over practically the whole of India.

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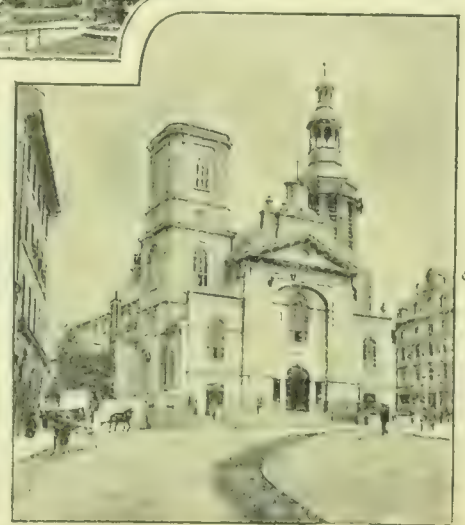
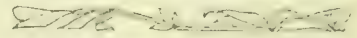
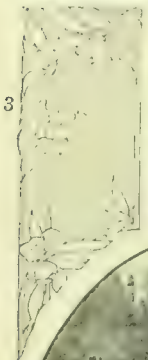
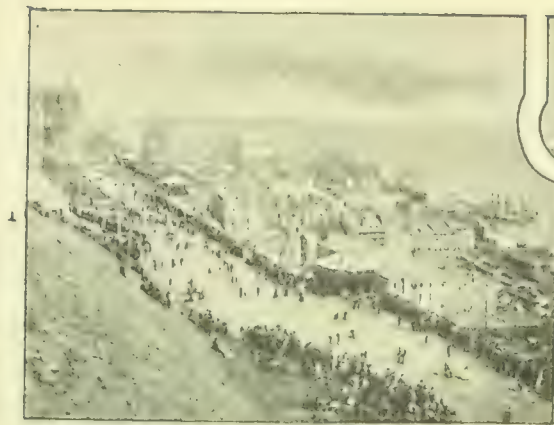
## 26. JAMES WOLFE, "MAKER OF EMPIRE."—I.

1. To-day we will charter one of the air-ships of the future and speed away westward over the rolling Atlantic for two thousand six hundred miles. We flash over the misty island of Newfoundland, and ere long find ourselves sailing above the broad estuary of a noble river which gives access to the heart of the North American continent. With the slowly-narrowing river as our guide, we continue our journey for some five hundred miles, until we see below us the quaint roofs of an old-world city straggling up the

slope and crowning the summit of a lofty cliff. We are now rapidly descending on Quebec, the mother-city of our great dominion of Canada.

2. What a wonderful dominion it is! It occupies nearly half of the North American continent, and boasts an area equal to one-third of the whole British Empire. It is nearly as large as the whole of Europe; it could easily contain the whole of Australia, and might be carved into thirty United Kingdoms. It has thousands of miles of forest, where some of the finest trees in the world are to be found; thousands of miles of rich wheat land, yielding a very large number of bushels to the acre; and thousands of miles of pasture land, where millions of cattle grow fat on the sweet grasses. Nor is this all: Canada is as rich below ground as she is above, and from petroleum to iron, from nickel to gold, there is hardly a mineral which she does not produce in abundance. Such is the Dominion of Canada, "eldest daughter of the Empire."

3. Now let us examine at closer quarters the mother-city of this great Dominion. From our air-ship we perceive that it stands on what we may call the nose of a rocky peninsula shaped like a bull's head and facing eastward. You can easily see that the peninsula is a great natural fortress. On the south and the east side it rises by steep cliffs to its rocky summit; on south and east and north it is defended by rivers. To the south flows the great St. Lawrence River, which expands on the east into a broad basin, upon which the navies of the world might ride in safety: while on the north the peninsula is protected by the estuary of the river St. Charles.



# VIEWS IN QUEBEC.

1. Dufferin Terrace. 2. The Citadel and Château Frontenac. 3. Plains of Abraham, and Wolfe Monument. 4. Sous-le-Cap Street. 5. Montmorency Falls. 6. Church of Notre-Dame des Victoires. 7. Parliament Buildings. 8. French Cathedral.



4. Now let us descend. We come to earth on Dufferin Terrace, a broad promenade two hundred feet above the waters of the great river. Here is the Hotel Frontenac, built after the fashion of an old French castle. Behind it rises the grim and frowning citadel, on which the Union Jack proudly waves.

5. We climb to the fortress, and gaze in admiration on the scene which unfolds itself. Below us and around us is the town. The lower town, with its steep streets, its old gabled houses, its public buildings and numerous churches with their tin-covered roofs and minarets, rises sharply from the water's edge. Opposite to us, on the other side of the river, is Point Levis, and to its east is the beautiful Isle of Orleans. On our left, across the Basin, is the Montmorency River, which hurls itself over a precipice to mingle its waters with those of the great river.

6. To our right extend the famous Plains of Abraham, the most interesting part of which has now been set apart as a national park. We leave our coign of vantage, and, walking on to the Plains, call a halt before a tall monument, on which we read this simple inscription: "Here died Wolfe victorious." Who was Wolfe, and what victory did he lose his life in winning?

7. In the last lesson you learned that the Seven Years' War was fought out mainly, as far as Britain was concerned, in India and America. You already know that both France and England had begun colonizing in the New World early in the seventeenth century. By the middle of the eighteenth century the position in North America was as follows: The British had established themselves in

thirteen colonies along the Atlantic coast from Florida to Nova Scotia ; the French had chosen Quebec as their capital, and had occupied Acadia, now the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the valley of the St. Lawrence from the Atlantic Ocean to the great lakes. A New England and a New France had thus grown up in the New World.

8. New England grew rapidly in population and wealth. New France also prospered, but in a lesser degree. Its progress was hindered by constant warfare with the Indians, by the trading enterprise of the British, and by the interference of the home Government. The two white races constantly advanced their frontiers, and their outposts drew nearer and nearer to each other every year. Border strife between the rival nations soon became frequent. In 1690, for example, the British settlers invaded New France, to revenge themselves for the plunder of certain frontier stations. The invaders were driven back, but for years afterwards the French and the British kept up an irregular warfare. During the War of the Spanish Succession a powerful British fleet, which was protecting the colonies, seized that part of Acadia now known as Nova Scotia.

9. Though Britain had colonized the whole Atlantic seaboard from Florida to Nova Scotia, her territories had not advanced inland beyond the great barrier of the Alleghany Mountains. France, in addition to Canada, possessed the colony of Louisiana at the mouth of the Mississippi. She claimed that Louisiana stretched to the head-waters of the Mississippi, and its tributary, the Ohio. Had this claim been allowed, the British seaboard colonies would have been shut in on the west, and prevented from

extending to the rich plains of the interior. Already the British needed elbow-room, for they numbered some two millions; while the French, in all the vast territory which they claimed, could only muster one hundred and eighty thousand.

10. The French now proposed to link Louisiana with Canada by a chain of forts along the Mississippi and the Ohio. The three northern links in the proposed chain were Fort Ticonderoga at the end of Lake Champlain, Fort Niagara near the great falls, and Fort Duquesne\* on the Ohio River, where the great manufacturing town of Pittsburgh now stands. The first and the last of these forts were close to the English back settlements. In 1754, while Britain was ringing with the fame of Clive fresh from his great defence of Arcot, a party of Virginian militia attacked the Ohio outposts under George Washington, soon to be the greatest name in American history. The attack, however, was unsuccessful. This was the beginning of the great struggle between the French and the British for the possession of North America.

11. Next year General Braddock, who had been sent to be commander-in-chief in America, marched against the French at the head of two thousand two hundred British regulars and American settlers. He cut his way through thick forest, but when eight miles from the fort fell into a trap. The Indians and French were hidden in bushes and behind trees, and they poured volley after volley into the British ranks.

12. The settlers wished to fight in the Indian fashion and

\* Pronounced *doo-kān'*.



take cover behind the trees ; but Braddock thought this cowardly, and so they fought in the open until so many were killed that a retreat had to be ordered. Soon the retreat became a flight, and but for Washington and his

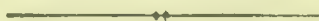


JAMES WOLFE.

(From the picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Virginians, Braddock's little army would probably have been killed to a man. The consequences of this defeat were terrible. The French let loose the Indians on the outlying British settlements, and the woods rang with the screams of tortured victims. For a time France was supreme on the North American continent.

13. In the winter of 1758 Pitt sketched out a bold plan of campaign in America. Attacks were to be made at the same time on Fort Ticonderoga, Fort Niagara, and Quebec, the key of New France. Pitt looked around for a man after his own heart to conduct the great campaign. He found him in James Wolfe, who died victorious on the Plains of Abraham.



## 27. JAMES WOLFE, "MAKER OF EMPIRE."—II.

1. James Wolfe was a soldier born and bred, yet something better and higher than a mere soldier—a hero and a gentleman. His father had commanded troops with distinction ; and at fifteen years of age, as a delicate, tall, blue-eyed lad, the future hero of Quebec carried the colours

in one of his Majesty's regiments. From the beginning of his military career Wolfe set himself to study the art of war, and at sixteen was appointed adjutant of his regiment, then serving in Flanders.

2. At twenty-one he had seen seven campaigns, and was a major. He had been present at the victories of Dettingen and Culloden, and it is said that on the latter battlefield he showed his noble nature by refusing to shoot a wounded Highlander when ordered to do so by "Butcher" Cumberland. It is also said that he recommended the enlistment of the Highlanders as soldiers in the British army. This may or may not be true, but it is certain that the Highland regiments first began to win their great renown under his command.

3. At thirty years of age he was considered a capable, active officer, but so far he had given no indication of the great fame which was soon to be his. In 1758 he accompanied General Amherst as brigadier of an expedition sent against the fortress of Louisburg in Acadia. Louisburg yielded, and Wolfe played such a large part in its capture that Pitt chose him to command the new expedition against Quebec. Wolfe jumped at the chance. "Mr. Pitt," he said, "may dispose of my slight carcass as he pleases." The Duke of Newcastle, who was then Prime Minister, was shocked at Pitt's choice. He told the king that Wolfe was mad. "Mad, is he?" said George; "then I hope he will bite some others of my generals."

4. On February 17, 1759, Wolfe sailed for Canada with a large fleet and nine thousand troops. During the voyage he suffered tortures from sea-sickness. In May he

was at Louisburg, and on the sixteenth of June he weighed anchor for Quebec, the troops cheering and the officers drinking this toast, "British colours on every French fort, port, and garrison in America." His errand was known in Quebec, and an army of settlers and Indians was hastily collected.

5. Montcalm, the gallant Frenchman who was Governor of New France, hastened to make Quebec, already strong by nature, stronger still by art. Redoubts, batteries, and lines of trenches were thrown up along the lofty, curving shore from the St. Charles River to the Montmorency, and a boom of logs, and hulks mounted with cannon, stretched across the former river. Fourteen thousand men lined the earthworks, and one or two thousand more manned the guns of the fortress. When Wolfe arrived on the twenty-first of June, Quebec was well-nigh impregnable.

6. Wolfe landed his men on the Isle of Orleans, and soon understood the desperate character of the task which he had undertaken. Quebec seemed impossible of attack. The cliffs to his left were edged with palisades and capped with forts, while on his right was a far-extended line of trenches ending in the foaming cataract of Montmorency. There seemed to be no chink in the wall of defence. For weeks Wolfe did nothing but wear himself to a shadow in the attempt to find a weak spot against which he might hurl his army.

7. He seized Point Levis, and from it bombarded Quebec, only one mile away. Fierce as his fire was, it did nothing to help him in capturing the city. At length, on the thirty-first of July, he attempted to gain a footing on the north



shore of the St. Lawrence by landing his men below the Montmorency Fall and climbing to the plateau above. In this he was successful ; but though his guns now played on the flank of Montcalm's trenches, the capture of Quebec was as far off as ever. "You may demolish the town," said the bearer of a flag of truce, "but you shall never get inside it." "I will have Quebec if I stay here till November," was Wolfe's reply.



8. A frontal attack on the Beauport heights, at the spot marked Beauport shoals on the plan, was a complete failure, and Wolfe lost more than two hundred men. He was now worn to a shadow, and he lay dangerously ill. He felt his failure deeply, especially as news now arrived that Ticonderoga and Niagara had fallen. Meanwhile the British fleet had achieved a great success. Despite a fierce fire from the guns of Quebec, ship after ship had managed to sail up the river past the forts, and were now able to threaten

the city from a position which the French had thought to be quite safe from attack.

9. On the twentieth of August the young general was about again, and was diligently searching the steep, rocky shore above Quebec for a possible landing-place. At last he discovered, three miles from Quebec, what is now called Wolfe's Cove. From this a narrow goat-track wound up the wooded precipice for two hundred and fifty feet above the St. Lawrence. A French guard was stationed at the top, but Wolfe thought it could easily be surprised and captured. He was now resolved to lead his men up this steep track and make a last despairing attempt to capture the city. With four thousand men he determined to climb the Heights of Abraham and meet Montcalm's army at the very gates of Quebec.

10. Now let us pass on to the night of September 12, 1759. Under cover of the darkness, the British flotilla of boats moved silently towards the landing-place. Wolfe, who was in the leading boat, began in a low whisper to recite the beautiful lines of Gray's "Elegy." When he reached the end of the verse which concludes with the words, "The paths of glory lead but to the grave," he said, "Now, gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

11. Presently they were challenged from the heights above ; but the sentry was satisfied, and the boats passed on. As they reached the tiny cove at the foot of the crags the men silently disembarked, and scrambled up the wooded precipice on their hands and knees. The French guard at the top was captured, and before the day dawned Wolfe

had arrayed his four thousand men on the Heights of Abraham. When they became visible, Montcalm was alarmed for the safety of Quebec. To save the citadel, he was forced to come out of his trenches and fight in the open.

12. The French advanced, firing rapidly; but the British



THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.

*(From a contemporary print.)*

stood firm, and reserved their fire until the enemy was within close range. Then a fearful hail of bullets sped from the British muskets. The French wavered, and as the British reloaded and advanced they turned and fled. Wolfe was struck down in the hour of victory. He lived long enough to hear that the enemy were in flight. "Now, God



be praised," he said ; "I die happy." Wolfe was dead, and in the same hour his gallant foe Montcalm received a fatal wound. A monument to the joint memory of two leaders who in death were not divided now stands in the public gardens of Quebec. In the year 1908 the historic battlefield of Canada was purchased by public subscription and handed over to the nation as a national park.

13. On September 18, 1759, the British flag was hoisted on the citadel of Quebec. At home the news was received with great joy. "The whole nation rose up," says Thackeray, "and felt itself the stronger for Wolfe's victory." The scattered remnants of the French fell back on Montreal. In the next autumn they were surrounded and forced to lay down their arms. The victory of the British was complete. So little did the French realize the value of Canada, that Lewis the Fifteenth remarked, "After all, it is only a few acres of snow."

14. The city which Wolfe captured is still the centre of the French-speaking province of Quebec. On his deathbed Montcalm wrote to the British commander beseeching him to show mercy to the townsfolk. "Do not," he wrote, "let them perceive that they have changed masters. Be their protector, as I have been their father." It is to Britain's honour that with the utmost care she has observed this dying request of a great and good man. The French Canadian of to-day would be the first to say that under the Union Jack he retains his faith, language, and his old laws, and that under British rule he is freer and more prosperous than his forefathers were under French rule.



BOSTON.

## 28. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—I.

1. To-day we will once more cross the Atlantic and pay a visit to Boston, which may be called the birthplace of the United States. It is *the* historic city of the great Republic. In and around it are most of the places closely associated with the striking events which led to the independence of the thirteen colonies, and their growth into one of the greatest powers of the world. The city stands at the head of a fine island-studded harbour on the navigable river Charles, in the State of Massachusetts, and spreads out from its water-front over many square miles. It is the chief town of the New England states, the oldest of the large cities, the second port of the country, and the seat of its best education and culture.

2. Boston is old in a land where all is new. The streets in the oldest part of the town are narrow and crooked, and in this respect are in remarkable contrast with the streets of other American cities, which are laid out as regularly as a

draught-board. Modern Americans poke good-natured fun at Boston's irregular streets, which they say were laid out by the cows coming home from pasture. Several public buildings, now the object of pious care, date from the days when the Union Jack flew above the city. In its harbour the first important revolt against British authority took place ; two lanterns hung out on the tower of the old North Church informed the inhabitants of the arrival of a British fleet laden with red-coats ; in its Old State House the first steps were taken which began the revolution ; and a monument on Bunker Hill, in the suburb of Charlestown, commemorates the first battle of the war. No place could suit us better as a starting-point for our lesson to-day.

3. You already know that George the Second died in October 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson, George the Third. The new king had been taught by his mother to aim at being the master of his ministers and not their servant, as the two former kings had been. "George, *be king*," she cried constantly, and her lesson was well learned by the young sovereign. He was a simple, pious, industrious, good-natured man ; but he was very obstinate, and could not be persuaded to change his opinions.

4. All his subjects were delighted when he made the famous speech : "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton ; and the peculiar happiness of my life will ever consist in promoting the welfare of a people whose loyalty and warm affection to me I consider as the greatest and most permanent security of my throne." He began by being popular, and he never lost the affection of his people. At first his friend and adviser was a Scottish



nobleman, named Lord Bute, who had gained great influence over him. George insisted on pitchforking Bute into the Ministry in the hope of driving Pitt, whom he disliked, out of it. Bute was strongly in favour of peace with France at a time when Pitt knew that our old enemy was making a new alliance with Spain for the purpose of depriving us of our sea-power. Pitt advised instant war with Spain, but Bute opposed him so strongly that Pitt resigned, to the king's great delight.

5. The Peace of Paris was made, but it was not very popular in England. Men said, with justice, that Pitt could have got better terms, and that he would have given back nothing to either France or Spain. Our gains, however, were very considerable ; but our victories had been so brilliant that the nation was not satisfied. Bute became very unpopular, and the "*jack-boot*" was constantly burned by the mob. In November 1763 he resigned, and the king chose the Whig leaders, George Grenville and the Duke of Bedford, to succeed him. Grenville was a narrow-minded man, who knew of "no national interests except those which are expressed by pounds, shillings, and pence." He was soon to plunge the country into the most terrible quarrel in which it had ever been engaged.

6. Grenville believed, as most statesmen did at the time, that colonies were merely estates which the mother-country held across the seas. These estates were simply regarded as milch-cows for the people of Britain ; consequently all sorts of restrictions were placed by the home Government on their trade. The colonists were supposed to buy all, or nearly all, their manufactured goods and their tea from this

country, which took in return only a small amount of their lumber, tobacco, and other raw produce. The consequence was that the colonists always owed large sums of money to Britain.

7. This balance they had to make up from time to time by money payments, which they could only procure by



OLD STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

breaking the law and trading with the West India Islands and the Spanish colonies. This trade was carried on openly, and no colonist believed there was anything wrong in it. A wise minister would not have meddled in the matter at all; but Grenville was not wise, and he could see no difference between the trade which the colonists carried on and the smuggling which was common at home. Consequently he determined to

put it down, and in doing so he dealt a crushing blow to American trade. Naturally this was a great grievance, and a loud outcry arose from the colonists.

8. They had a still greater grievance. The Seven Years' War had entailed a heavy burden of expense upon the British Government as well as upon the colonists. The National Debt was greatly increased, and there were many

men in England who thought that the colonies, in simple justice, ought to share in the burden of the war, especially as an armed force had now to be kept on the frontiers to cope with the Indians. Accordingly, in 1765, Grenville persuaded Parliament to pass a new Stamp Act. This Stamp Act applied to all the colonies, and was the means of uniting them in opposition to the British Government. The Stamp Act required that every legal document, pamphlet, almanac, newspaper, and pack of cards must be written or printed on English paper bearing a stamp, and sold at prices fixed by law. The money raised by this tax was to be spent in America for the support of an army.

9. Never before had the British Parliament directly laid a tax on the colonists. When the king needed money, the Parliaments of the various colonies levied the taxes themselves, and handed over the money. Now these local Parliaments were to be superseded, and the British Parliament was to tax the Americans without asking their yea or nay. They professed willingness to tax themselves for the purpose, but they strongly resisted being taxed by a Parliament in which they had no part or lot.



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.



10. Forthwith they sent their agents to London to protest; but Grenville could not be persuaded, and on March 22, 1765, the Stamp Act was passed. When the news crossed the Atlantic the Americans were very angry. The Virginians broke out into the first note of defiance, declaring that one of their rights was that of being taxed by their own Parliament, and that they were not bound to obey any law taxing them without their consent. The Stamp Act was reprinted in New York with a death's head on it in place of the royal arms, and was headed, "The Folly of England and the Ruin of America." In Boston the bells tolled and the flags flew at half-mast.

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## 29. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—II.

1. The cry of the Americans was, "No taxation without representation." To this Grenville's friends replied that the Americans *were* represented in Parliament. The British people, it was said, were represented in Parliament not as individuals but as classes. Thus the clergy were represented by the bishops and the nobles by the peers in the House of Lords, while the mass of the people were represented by the members of the House of Commons. It was also pointed out that the colonists were no worse off than large numbers of Britons at home. The number of voters was then very small, and great cities like Liverpool, Leeds, and Manchester had not a single member in the House of Commons.

2. All talk of this kind, however, was useless. The colonists banded themselves together as "Sons of Liberty,"

and frequent riots took place. Every scrap of stamped paper in the country was seized and burned, and the merchants agreed not to import any goods from Britain until the question was settled. The result was that the British manufacturers could sell no goods in America, and such a cry went up from them that Parliament had to take notice of their complaint. During the debate which followed, the great orator, Edmund Burke, made his maiden speech, and Pitt burst forth in the following words: "I rejoice that America has resisted; three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty as willingly to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest." The result was that the Stamp Act was repealed, though Parliament still declared that it had the right to tax the Americans if it so wished.

3. There was great rejoicing in America when the news crossed the ocean, but eighteen months had hardly passed away before the new Ministry, influenced by that brilliant but unwise statesman, Charles Townshend, made another attempt to tax the Americans. There is no doubt that the king, and Parliament in general, were angry at their defeat. Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, was a member of the Government, but he was so ill that he could not restrain Townshend. In May 1767 this minister punished the Parliament of New York because the people had mobbed the royal troops, and then he proceeded to a worse piece of folly—he passed an Act to tax glass, lead, painters' colours, paper, and tea. At once the anger of the colonists flamed up. Meetings were held everywhere, and the merchants again agreed not to import British goods.

4. In 1770 the troops intended for the defence of the colonists began to arrive, and the colonists received them as enemies. On the fifth of March the Boston townsfolk attacked the troops with sticks and snowballs. In the excitement the soldiers fired on the crowd, and some of the rioters were killed. So angry were the colonists at this "massacre," as they called it, that the soldiers had to be removed for safety to an island in the bay. On the very day of this riot the British Parliament repealed all the taxes except that on tea, which was only reserved so that it might claim to tax the colonies.

5. The Americans, however, still held out. No tea was drunk except that which was smuggled from Holland, and at the end of three years the East India Company's warehouses were choked with tea which they could not sell in America. At last the British Government took off a British tea tax, which enabled the Company to send shiploads of tea to America, where it could now be sold at a lower price than the smuggled tea. The Americans, however, refused to receive the tea-ships. At Boston a band of young men, disguised as Indians, boarded a tea-ship, broke open the boxes, and made tea on a large scale by flinging it into the sea. This incident, which is known as the "Boston tea-party," made the home Government very angry, and it resolved to punish the people of Boston for the outrage. Acts were passed closing the port and taking away from Massachusetts its right to govern itself.

6. This was the last straw which broke down the patience of the Americans. They armed and drilled, and the quarrel soon gave rise to war. The first blood was spilt



at the village of Lexington (April 1775), where "the shot heard round the world" was fired. Within a month all New England was in arms. George Washington, a Virginian planter, of whom you have already heard, was appointed to lead the Americans; but before he reached Massachusetts the first battle had been fought.

7. At Bunker Hill the British, after a hard struggle, defeated the colonists; and then it was felt that the war must be fought out to the bitter end. Two weeks later Washington took command of the colonial army, which was in a miserable plight. His undaunted spirit and splendid patience, however, worked wonders. For eight months he kept the British cooped up in Boston while he trained his army and supplied himself with the munitions of war. In March 1776 he forced the British to retreat from Boston.

8. The British nation had now become as bitter and determined as the Americans, and though Chatham pleaded hard for peace he was unsuccessful. The obstinate king had done his best to prevent peace by declaring the Americans rebels, by closing their ports, by warning foreign nations not to trade with them, and by hiring German soldiers to fight them. On the fourth of July 1776 the Congress of the American States issued its famous Declaration of Independence, by which it threw off all connection with Britain, and formed the thirteen colonies into a republic.

9. In the war which followed it seemed at first as if all the advantage would be on the side of the British. The Americans, however, were fighting for their liberty; their country, though easy to enter, was so large that it was diffi-



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, JULY 4, 1776.  
(From the picture by Trumbull.)

cult to hold ; the ocean lay between them and Britain ; and lastly, they received help from abroad, which in the end turned the scale against the mother-country. During the first two years of the war the British won several battles and took New York and Philadelphia. Washington was almost driven to despair, and nothing but his wonderful patience and courage saved the Americans from utter defeat. His men were young and only half-trained, thousands of them had no shoes, and food, powder, and shot were scarce. In the darkest hour, however, he was cheered by the news that the British general, Burgoyne, had been forced to surrender at Saratoga by the militia of New York.

10. At home Chatham, swathed in flannel, went to the House of Lords, and in burning words urged the king to make peace with his subjects across the Atlantic. So far was he successful that the Government offered peace on any terms short of independence. At this moment news arrived that France had thrown in her lot with the Americans, and that we had now two nations in arms against us. A proposal was made to make peace with both countries, but this Chatham opposed with his dying breath.

11. Too weak to stand without support, he was almost carried into the House of Lords, where, leaning on his crutch, his eyes gleaming fire from his shrunken face, he cried, "Have we stooped so low as to tell our ancient enemy, Take all we have, only give us peace ?" He besought the nation to make friends with its own flesh and blood, then turn and crush the French. A feeble reply was made, and a second time he rose, but before he could speak he was seen to gasp, to lay his hand upon his heart, and



sink back unconscious. A few weeks later he died, and with him passed away all hope of making peace with America.

12. The war went on, and before long Britain stood alone against Europe. The Spaniards and the Dutch joined the Americans, and the league was too strong for Britain. In October 1781 Lord Cornwallis and his troops were surrounded at Yorktown. The British fleet was driven off the coast, and the British general was forced to surrender. When Lord North, the British Prime Minister, heard the terrible news he threw up his hands and said, "It is all over." So it was; all hope of retaining the American colonies had vanished, and on September 3, 1783, peace was signed at Paris. The colonists had triumphed, and the star of Britain's glory seemed to have set for ever.

13. From the thirteen British colonies which thus asserted their independence has sprung the United States of America, the giant power of the New World. No country at any time has ever advanced so rapidly towards wealth and greatness as the United States. One hundred years ago the States had three million inhabitants; to-day they extend over an area nearly as large as Europe, with a population of more than a hundred millions of English-speaking people.

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### 30. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

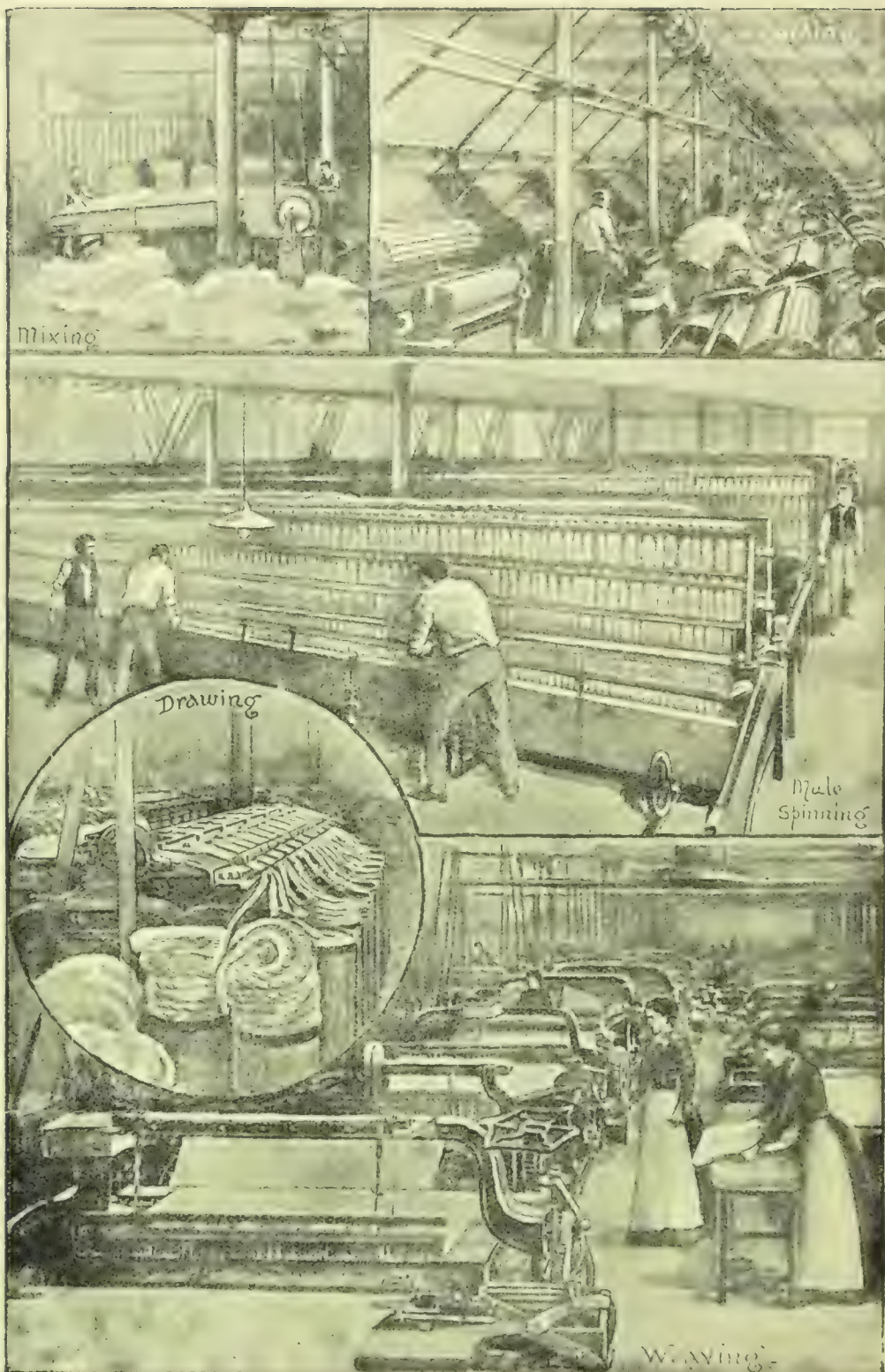
1. To-day we will visit one of the great Lancashire cotton manufacturing towns. What will strike you most in these towns is the large number of great bare buildings or mills,

as they are called. Most of them are huge blocks of brick and mortar four or five stories high, with row after row of windows and a lofty chimney-stack which belches forth clouds of black smoke. Let us enter one of these cotton factories. We are at once met with the deafening noise of running machinery, which performs in an almost marvellous manner almost all the work done in the place.

2. Machines break open the bales of cotton which have come from the plantations of the southern United States, from the great delta of the Nile, or from India. Other machines loosen the fibres and partly cleanse the wool, mix it, beat it, and purify it until it is turned out in a felt-like fleece. Then the carding machines take it in hand, and straighten and lengthen the fibres until they form a sort of ribbon about an inch broad. It is next passed on to another series of machines, which double it, twist it, draw it, and finally spin it into yarn. When the yarn is ready for weaving it is known as the "cop." The weaving sheds in which the "cop" is woven into cotton cloth sometimes contain hundreds of looms of the most ingenious character. The cotton mills of Lancashire alone contain millions of shuttles and hundreds of thousands of looms.

3. Now look at the workers. They are simply the *tenters* and feeders of the machines. All they have to do is to see that their machines work smoothly, to keep them well supplied with raw material, and to fetch and carry for them. Large numbers of men are employed, but most of the operatives are women and children. You see them hurrying to their work in the early morning, and hear "the clang of their wooden shoon" on the pavements. At noon





THE PROCESSES OF COTTON MANUFACTURE IN A MODERN MILL.



a bell rings or a steam whistle sounds, and the work-people hurry off for their midday meal, while gangs of cleaners take advantage of the stoppage of the machinery. Then the bell or whistle sounds again, and once more the din of machinery begins. At six in the evening work ceases for the day, and the mills disgorge their thousands of weary workers, who hurry home to take their evening meal and enjoy their leisure. The Lancashire cotton mills alone employ more than three million persons.

4. In many other parts of Great Britain you will find a similar system for the manufacture of other articles of necessity or luxury. This factory system is based on the principle of "division of labour"—that is, no person makes the whole of an article, but confines himself to performing, day after day, the same single operation or set of operations on the same materials presented to him in the same form. The work may be dull, but the worker under such a system becomes wonderfully skilful and quick, and production is thus enormously increased and cheapened.

5. Now this system had its beginnings in Great Britain during the years when George the Third was wrangling with the Whigs and quarrelling with his subjects in America. At the beginning of the eighteenth century England was by no means an important manufacturing or trading country, and the north of England was especially backward. Daniel Defoe wrote in 1725, "The country south of the Trent is by far the largest, as well as the richest and most populous." Forty or fifty years later there was a great movement of work-people to the north of England. Lancashire and Yorkshire began to fill up and to become

the seats of the cotton and woollen manufactures ; Staffordshire and Yorkshire became pottery and hardware centres ; while Durham and Northumberland greatly developed their mining industries. Thus the north of England became the richest industrial portion of the country.

6. The first great industry which took root in Lancashire is still the chief source of its wealth. Up to the accession of George the Third no fabric consisting entirely of cotton was made in England. Suddenly, however, as a result of certain remarkable inventions, a wonderful change came about, and cotton soon became the most important of our manufactures. The factory system, however, had not yet arrived ; the work was done in the homes of the workers.

7. Inside the narrow red-brick houses of Lancashire towns whole families worked together to make cotton cloth, or rather cloth with a linen warp and a weft of cotton wool. The linen yarn was purchased in a prepared state, the wool for the weft was carded and spun by the wife and daughters, and the cloth was woven by the father and his sons. The spinning was done on the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, which even now is used in some rural parts of Scotland and Ireland.

8. About the year 1767 James Hargreaves, a weaver of Blackburn, invented what was called the "spinning-jenny." Before this invention one thread only could be spun at a time. Hargreaves's jenny consisted at first of eight spindles, turned by a horizontal wheel ; but it was afterwards enlarged and improved so as to give motion to eighty spindles at once. Hargreaves's jenny thus enabled one person to do the work formerly done by fifty or eighty workers. This was the

first of the many remarkable inventions which in a short space of time completely altered the character of our manufacturing.

9. Richard Arkwright further improved the machinery for making yarn ; and Samuel Crompton combined Arkwright's invention with Hargreaves's jenny, and so produced the mule by means of which yarn of the finest character could be spun. Fifteen years later a power-loom was invented. These inventions could not be set up in the home. They needed specially arranged buildings ; and as they were frequently driven by water-power, such buildings had to be erected on the banks of streams. The work-people were now obliged to leave their homes for the factories, and thus the modern system began. It must not be supposed that progress was only made in cotton manufacture. In the manufacture of wool, linen, silk, earthenware, and iron, great strides were also made.

10. Now we come to the era of steam. The inventions described above could have made but little progress had not steam been used to set them in motion. In 1765 James Watt transformed the steam-engine "from a mere toy into the most wonderful instrument which human industry has ever had at its command." To the introduction of steam, together with our vast stores of coal and other mineral wealth, we owe our modern industrial system.

11. The "industrial revolution," as it is called, did not come about without considerable suffering on the part of the work-people. It took place so suddenly that they had no time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions. The new machines produced articles so rapidly and so



cheaply that the hand workers could not compete with them. Consequently they were thrown out of work. Frequently they rioted and destroyed the machinery, which they believed to be the source of all their misery. In the end, however, they had either to crowd into the towns where the new factories were situated, or starve.

12. Then, too, the millowners, in their haste to grow rich, were careless of the lives and health of their work-people. The workshops were unhealthy, the hours of labour were very long, the dwellings of the people were wretched in the extreme, and wages were very low. The greatest possible misery prevailed, and many years passed away before the condition of the millworkers was improved and the benefits of the new system were felt by all classes of people.

13. With the growth of manufactures came a great increase in the population, and an increased demand for food. This encouraged farmers to grow wheat wherever a crop could be raised. It is said that between the years 1760 and 1780 more new land was brought under cultivation than during the whole preceding century. Thus the landowning classes benefited by the great change, and the yield of their lands was increased by the use of machinery. All this increase in industry led to better means of communication. The land was covered with a network of canals, which enabled goods to be distributed cheaply. The muddy lanes, which were England's only roads, disappeared, and by means of Turnpike Acts new and well-made highways were constructed, along which fast travelling coaches made their way from town to town.

14. The vast growth of manufactures and the increase in agriculture made Britain the richest of all countries. It gave her half a century's start of other nations, and enabled her to become the workshop of the world. This in itself explains the rapid and easy manner in which she was enabled to pay off the vast burden of the American War. Further, it explains how she provided money for the great struggle which was about to begin. While the war ran its course Britain was the only European nation which enjoyed peace at home. Consequently her manufactures were undisturbed, and continental nations *had* to purchase her wares. Britain could never have successfully fought France and overcome the great Napoleon had not her wealth been so vastly increased by the "industrial revolution" just described.

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### 31. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. To-day we will visit a part of Paris which may almost be regarded as the cradle of France. We make our way to an open space known as the Place de la Bastille. Now look about you. Except for the tall column in the middle of the Place you see nothing to attract your special attention. Read the inscription on the house numbered 3. It tells you that here stood the Bastille, which was erected by Charles the Fifth, captured by the people on July 14, 1789, and razed to the ground in the same year. Not a stone of it remains; there is nothing left of this ancient castle but its hated memory. In the pavement on the western side of the Place a line of white stones marks its boundary, and

that is all. Now examine the soaring bronze column which rises in the midst of the Place. It is surmounted by a figure representing the Genius of Liberty, and inscribed on it in letters of gold you see the names of the six hundred and fifteen citizens of Paris who were the chief instruments in the downfall of the Bastille. What is the meaning of the event which is thus commemorated? Why does France honour the memory of the men who captured the Bastille?

2. Thirteen years after the Americans had issued their Declaration of Independence, the French people rose in wrath and swept away the old order of things. For centuries the kings and nobles of France had grossly mismanaged the country, and had bitterly oppressed the people. The state was well-nigh bankrupt, and the land was full of starving and despairing men. When, in May 1789, Lewis the Sixteenth was forced to call together the French States-General, which had not been convoked since 1614, every one was prepared for a great change. The "Third Estate," or Commons, boldly seized the reins of government, and proclaimed itself the National Assembly. At once there was intense excitement all over France, and the people were on the eve of revolt everywhere.

3. In July Paris rose, and the National Guards joined the people. The Bastille was stormed, the prisoners were released, and the garrison slain. All over the country the peasants rose, murdered the nobles, and burned their castles. The king was powerless to interfere, and the Assembly, backed by the mob, passed laws which swept away all the privileges of the nobles and the rights of the Church. Before long the king and his family tried to escape from the





THE ATTACK ON THE BASTILLE.  
*(From a contemporary print.)*

country, but they were discovered, brought back, and treated as prisoners. Meanwhile large numbers of the nobles had sought refuge in foreign courts, and were urging foreign Governments to declare war on France. When the German sovereigns threatened invasion, the French declared war against Austria and Prussia.

4. The leaders of the people became more and more violent, and in the autumn of 1792 the king was deposed and a Republic set up. On the twenty-first of January 1793 Lewis was executed, and a few months later the axe fell on his wife's neck. A thrill of horror went through Great

Britain, and in the next month war was declared. Hostilities could no longer be safely delayed. The French had taken possession of Belgium, and were inciting those whom they called the "Republicans of England" to rise against the Government. Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia now leagued themselves against France, and in February 1793 began the great war which lasted, with two short intervals, until the allies entered Paris on July 7, 1815. The revolutionary fever grew apace. In the summer of 1793, during the awful "Reign of Terror," no fewer than fourteen hundred persons were executed in six weeks, and some of the most bloodthirsty scenes in all history took place.

5. During this terrible time army after army was being raised, though the Government had scarcely the means to feed and clothe the soldiers. These armies of the Republic showed wonderful spirit and energy, while the allies were sluggish and disunited. Consequently the French were enabled to carry the war into the enemy's country. Holland was conquered, and then Prussia and Spain made peace with France, leaving Britain and Austria to carry on the war. Meanwhile the government of France, after several changes, had passed into the hands of a body of five persons called the "Directory." Twice Britain attempted to make peace with this body, but with no success. At the end of the year 1795 France held the upper hand in Europe.

6. A new French general had come upon the scene. He first attracted attention in 1793, when, as a young artillery officer, he had been the means of driving a British force out of the port of Toulon. His name was Napoleon Bonaparte—a name that was destined ere long to be the

terror of Europe. Napoleon rose rapidly in the service of the Republic, and in 1796 he was in command of the army of Italy. He speedily overran the Austrian possessions in Italy, and advancing on Austria itself, forced that country to sue for peace. Great Britain, single-handed, was now left to continue the struggle against the victorious Republic. In the same year the French attempted to land on the Irish and Welsh coasts, but failed. They prepared, however, with the assistance of Holland and Spain, which had been forced to join France, for a more serious attempt next year.

7. When the Spanish fleet was on the way to unite with the French fleet at Brest, Admiral Jervis fell in with it off Cape St. Vincent, and in the fight which followed took several of the enemy's ships and drove the rest into Cadiz harbour. This put an end to the projected invasion for a time. During the autumn of the same year Britain made another effort to come to terms with France, but without avail.

8. The French Government was still bent on invading England, and the Dutch fleet was now ordered to leave Texel and join the French fleet. Off Camperdown it was met by Admiral Duncan's fleet, and a battle took place in which the British captured twelve of the enemy's ships. Duncan's victory was all the more remarkable because the crews of his ships had mutinied at the Nore only a few months previously. At first it was thought that the sailors were in sympathy with the French Revolution; but Pitt soon perceived that the men were in revolt simply because they were badly paid, ill-fed, and harshly treated by their commanders. When their ringleader was hanged and their



grievances were redressed, they returned to their duty and fought with all their old spirit and success.

9. Meanwhile, what was Napoleon doing? He returned from Italy to Paris to find France ready for still greater adventures on the field of battle, and especially for any campaign which would bring Britain to her knees. He



ADMIRAL DUNCAN'S VICTORY OFF CAMPERDOWN, OCTOBER 11, 1797.

*(From the painting by D. Orme.)*

was now entrusted with an army which was to take the first step in winning back India.

10. Napoleon considered Egypt the key to India, and believed that whoever possessed it was bound to be sooner or later master of the great peninsula. Accordingly, in May 1798, he sailed from Toulon with a fleet and transports conveying twenty-eight thousand troops, and a staff of scientific men who were to study the ancient wonders of

Egypt. On the way Malta was seized, and on the second of July the port of Alexandria was captured. Then began a series of French successes, and by the end of July Egypt was in Napoleon's hands.

11. Now we must interrupt the narrative to introduce the great British sailor who was always a thorn in Napoleon's side, and who, more than any other man, won for us that mastery of the seas which brought about his overthrow. Horatio Nelson, the proudest name in all the proud annals of the British navy, was now thirty-nine years of age. He had been at sea since the age of twelve, and though delicate in health he had from the first shown himself to be the most fearless and most zealous sailor in the whole navy.

12. At twenty-one he was a captain in the Royal Navy—"the merest boy of a captain," as Prince William, afterwards William the Fourth, described him. Since then he had distinguished himself in many engagements, especially in the battle of St. Vincent, where he had boarded and captured a Spanish ship across the deck of another then in his possession. Already he was the darling of his sailors, and a source of pride to the nation, in whose service he had lost an arm and the sight of one eye.

13. Now he was scouring the Mediterranean in command of a fleet, with orders to seek the French fleet, to take, sink, burn, and destroy it. After a long and anxious quest he at last discovered it at anchor in Aboukir Bay. "We are moored in such a manner," wrote the French admiral, "as to bid defiance to a force more than double our own." The French ships were anchored in single file along the shore, with three miles of shoal water between

them and the land, and the admiral believed that no war vessel could possibly get to the shoreward of him. In this he was utterly mistaken. Nelson saw that where there was room for a French ship to swing at anchor there was room for one of his ships to sail, and he cried, "Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey."

14. His prophecy proved true. He sailed his ships up on both sides of the French vessels, and by placing the enemy between two fires almost destroyed them. When in the night the French flagship *L'Orient* blew up with thunderous roar, the battle of the Nile ended, and in the morning only two ships of the French fleet had escaped.

15. Napoleon showed no dismay at this disaster, and now resolved to conquer the whole of the East. He crossed the desert into Syria, and drove the Turks out of the southern part of the land. Before the walls of Acre, however, his victorious march was checked. The Turks within, and a British fleet under Sir Sidney Smith outside, completely baffled him. In later years Napoleon said that but for Sir Sidney Smith he would have been Emperor of the East. As it was, he was forced to raise the siege of Acre and retire to Egypt.

16. Meanwhile Austria and Russia, hoping that Bonaparte's career was now at an end, had joined Britain, and the French armies in Europe had suffered some reverses. Hearing this disturbing news from a bundle of newspapers which Sir Sidney Smith sent into his lines, Napoleon left his army in Egypt and returned to his native land, where his friends arranged a revolution. On December 24, 1799, a new French Constitution was proclaimed, and shortly after

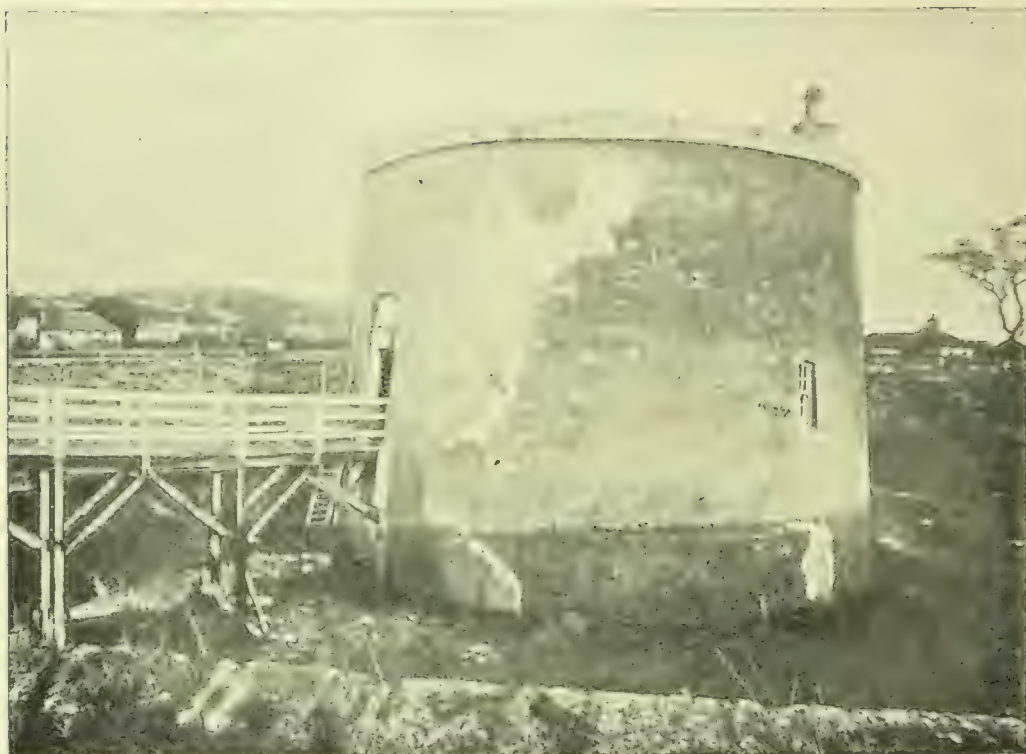


wards Napoleon became First Consul. He was now on the direct highroad to the lofty position which he meant to attain.

17. Napoleon had pledged his word to save France from her host of enemies, and in May 1800 he took the field. Crossing the Great St. Bernard Pass, never before traversed by a great army, he succeeded in planting himself in the rear of the Austrians, and at the battle of Marengo achieved a brilliant victory. Later in the year the French general Moreau crushed another Austrian army at Hohenlinden, and Austria then sued for peace.

18. The Tsar Paul had already abandoned the allies, and once more Great Britain was waging single-handed warfare against her powerful enemy. Indeed, it seemed likely that she would have to fight Russia and other northern Powers as well as France ; for these Powers made a league, and threatened war unless Great Britain would allow neutral states to trade freely with the French. This league, however, was broken up by a victory which Nelson gained at Copenhagen over the Danish fleet (April 1801), and by the death of the Tsar, whose successor was more friendly to Britain. Meanwhile the French army had been driven out of Egypt, and Napoleon had failed in all his attacks on the obstinate islanders.

19. He was ready for a breathing-space in which to recruit his armies and build up a navy powerful enough to beat Britain. Accordingly, peace was signed at Amiens (March 27, 1802). By this peace Great Britain restored all the colonial conquests which she had made during the war, except Ceylon and Trinidad. This was all that she gained from a struggle which had cost her thousands of lives, and had added £270,000,000 to the National Debt.



A MARTELLLO TOWER (THE CINQUE PORT OF RYE IN THE BACKGROUND).

*(Photo by Whitman, Rye.)*

### 32. NAPOLEON SUPREME.

1. At various points along the coast of Great Britain and especially along the seaboard of the English Channel, you may see the ruins of small circular forts known as "martello towers." On the Sussex coast, for example, a broken chain of such towers extends from Eastbourne for some miles in the direction of St. Leonards. If you examine one of these forts, you will find that its walls are very thick, and that it was originally intended to mount one gun. "It is clear," you will say, "these martello towers were built for the purpose of driving back an invader." Who was the invader?

2. In order to answer this question, we must once more turn to the history of Napoleon. In 1804 he became Emperor of the French. He was still a young man, only thirty-five years of age, but as a soldier he had no rival. Already he had conquered Italy, and had thoroughly beaten Austria. The fate of Europe was in his hands. Nor was his greatness that of the mere soldier. He governed France wisely and well, and the people, wearied by the cruelty and uncertainty of mob governments, gladly submitted to his sway.

3. Vast changes had occurred in Britain and France as the result of the last nine years' war. The British fleet had doubled in strength, and now consisted of eight hundred vessels, carrying one hundred and twenty thousand fighting men. On the other hand, the navy of France, beaten time after time by the great British admirals, had dwindled by one-half. On land, however, France had nearly a million armed men, and Britain had but half that number. While British trade had greatly increased, the foreign trade of France had almost disappeared. Her merchant ships had been chased from the seas by the terrible British men-of-war.

4. The Peace of Amiens had not made Britain and France friends, and difficulties between the two countries soon arose. Napoleon obliged Spain to join him, and once more prepared for the invasion of England. He assembled a large army and a fleet of boats at Boulogne ; but so long as the British fleet commanded the Channel, the attempt was hopeless. The prospect of invasion acted on Great Britain like a charm. Volunteers flocked to the standards, the dockyards worked night and day, the fortresses were



strengthened, and the martello towers which we noticed at the opening of this lesson were erected.

5. Napoleon now ordered the French admiral to sail to the West Indies, in order to decoy Nelson away ; and then to return as quickly as possible, to cover the crossing of the troops (1805). The plan nearly succeeded. Nelson crossed the Atlantic in hot pursuit ; but finding that the French fleet had already started homewards, he guessed the plan, and sent a swift ship home to warn the Government.

6. A small fleet, under Admiral Calder, met the French fleet off Cape Finisterre in July, and drove it into Ferrol for safety. This indecisive battle, which was considered a failure in England, and almost a disgrace, put an end to the invasion scheme. Napoleon waited and waited for the appearance of his ships, but they did not arrive. In disgust he broke up his camp at Boulogne, and marched into Germany to attack the Austrians, who, with the Russians and the British, had formed a new league against him. Ere long Napoleon had captured a whole division of the Austrian army, and the empire lay at his feet. While he was rejoicing in his victory terrible news reached him. The greatest sea-fight in the history of the world had been fought, and the fleets of France and Spain no longer existed.

7. On the morning of October 20, 1805, the fleets came within sight of each other. Nelson had twenty-seven ships, the allies thirty-three. Nelson advanced in two columns, and crashed into the enemy's line, thus breaking it, and destroying the ships in the centre before those on the wings could come to their relief. Strangely enough, this mode of attack was similar to that which Napoleon so

successfully adopted on land. He hurled his troops in columns at a far-extended line, and thus was in overwhelming force at a particular point. Having broken his enemy's line, he then proceeded to destroy its remnants. Napoleon never succeeded in this method of attack against British soldiers, but at sea Nelson used it in such a way that he never failed.

8. I need not tell the story of the fight in detail. When the great fight was over, all that was left of the Franco-Spanish fleet was a huddle of hulks rolling helplessly in the sea, with the British colours flying on the stumps of the masts, and a trail of beaten ships staggering towards Cadiz for safety. Of the thirty-three Franco-Spanish vessels, nineteen were taken and one was burned. The greatest blow to the British fleet was the death of the gallant Nelson in the hour of victory. With pardonable vanity he had arrayed himself in full uniform, and had worn his stars and orders. He was thus a mark for the enemy's sharpshooters, and fell with his backbone shot through. His last words were, "Now I am satisfied. Thank God I have done my duty."

9. Britain's great naval hero was dead, but he had not spent his life's blood in vain. He had ensured for his country a century's command of the sea, during which she was to spread her empire far and wide, and develop her commerce to an extraordinary degree. He had struck the blow which brought Napoleon to his knees ten years later; but, beyond and above all, he had given to his land the memory of a heroic sailor who made "Duty" the watchword of his career, and love of country the inspiration of his life.

10. Though hopelessly beaten at sea, Napoleon carried all before him on land. In the great battle of Austerlitz—perhaps the greatest of all his victories—he entirely broke down the Powers which dared to oppose him. The Russians retired, and Austria lost much territory. Prussia was overthrown soon afterwards, and there only remained Russia and Britain to dispute Napoleon's will.

11. In February 1807 Napoleon marched one hundred thousand men into East Prussia, and met the Russian and Prussian army. On fields covered with snow the battle was fought during all the daylight hours of a winter day. The slaughter was horrible, and the battle was drawn. Four months later the armies met again, and this time the allies were defeated and driven from the field. A week later Napoleon and the Tsar met on a great raft moored on the river Niemen, and made plans for the greatest scheme of robbery ever known to history. They agreed to divide Europe between them.

12. Napoleon was now supreme. In twelve years he had risen from an obscure officer of artillery to be master of all Europe. Britain alone of all the European nations stood against him. He could not attack her with the sword, but he could strike at that on which her life depended—her commerce. By the “Berlin Decrees” (1806) he forbade any Continental country to trade with Great Britain. The British replied by forbidding neutral states to trade with any countries which were not allowed to trade with Britain, and by blockading the ports of France and her allies. This meant that there was to be no British trade with the Continent at all. As you already know, Britain at that time was the greatest manufacturing country of the world, and



her colonies supplied most of the sugar, coffee, tea, pepper, and spices then used. These things Continental peoples would have in spite of all Napoleon's decrees. The consequence was that much smuggling took place, and that British manufactures and colonial products crept into all the Continental countries, and the inhabitants had to pay high prices for them.

13. The little kingdom of Portugal was almost the last European state which refused to join Napoleon; whereupon his armies overran the country and entered Lisbon. Then he forced the King of Spain to abdicate, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. Thus the whole Peninsula passed into his power. These actions roused the nations to another struggle, and an insurrection broke out in Spain and Portugal which even Napoleon could not stamp out. The British Government eagerly seized the opportunity of waging war against Napoleon on land. Arms and money were sent to the Spaniards, and on August 1, 1808, an army was landed in Portugal. Thus began the Peninsular War.

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### 33. THE BEGINNING OF THE END.

1. There is scarcely a town of any note in Great Britain which does not boast a memorial to the Duke of Wellington, the great British general who, in a later age, emulated the martial deeds of Marlborough, Wolfe, and Clive. Every visitor to Hyde Park, for example, sees the so-called Achilles statue which the ladies of England erected to the memory of Wellington and his army in the year 1822. Edinburgh,

Glasgow, Dublin, Liverpool, and a host of other cities and towns, have also suitable monuments ; and from their very prevalence you may learn how deep was the gratitude of the British people for the deliverance which Wellington wrought. In Apsley House at Hyde Park Corner and in the Hampshire estate of Strathfieldsaye you may see the nation's gifts to the general whom it delighted to honour.

2. Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, was born in 1769, less than four months before Napoleon. His father was the Earl of Mornington, an Irish peer, and Dublin still shows the house, 24 Upper Merrion Street, where he was born. In 1787, when eighteen years of age, Wellesley became an ensign in the army, but at first was quite undistinguished, and was, indeed, considered dull, idle, and rather frivolous. Not until the year 1793, when he was appointed to the command of his regiment, did he show that he had found the vocation in which he was to win such great renown. In 1798 his eldest brother sailed for India as Governor-General, and Arthur accompanied him. Soon afterwards he was given a military command, and proved himself a most active and successful general.

3. When in 1808 the British Government decided to attack Napoleon in Spain, Wellesley was given command of a force of some nine thousand men, and instructed to assist either the Spaniards or the Portuguese, according to his discretion. He sailed on the twelfth of July, and landing his men moved towards Lisbon. This was a bold step, for the French general, Junot, had been in occupation of the Portuguese capital since November. Wellesley had only ten thousand men ; but within three weeks of landing he

defeated the French at Vimiera. He had formed the opinion that British troops in line could withstand the dense columns in which it was the custom of the French to attack. He had judged wisely. The thin British lines threw back the solid columns of the enemy with terrible slaughter. After the battle the French offered to leave Portugal altogether, and their offer was accepted, much to the annoyance of the British people.

4. Wellesley and his superior officer were recalled to England, and tried for not capturing Lisbon. Meanwhile the British army, raised to thirty thousand men, was put under the command of Sir John Moore. In the interval, the Spanish insurgents had won several battles, and had driven their new king, Joseph, from Madrid. Sir John Moore, with a small British force, advanced to their assistance; but Napoleon took prompt measures to wipe out these defeats. He marched into Spain at the head of a large army, scattered to the winds the Spanish insurgents, entered Madrid, and then turned against Moore.

5. With great difficulty Sir John made good his retreat to Corunna, where he expected the fleet to be waiting for him. But the fleet was not there, and at Corunna he turned and defeated one wing of the French army (January 16, 1809). Like Wolfe, Moore fell in the moment of victory. He was buried hastily on the ramparts of the town. The troops, greatly reduced in numbers, embarked and returned to England. All that had been won so far was an insecure footing on the soil of Portugal. While the French were pursuing the British towards Corunna, the Austrians once more made a despairing effort to shake off



the French yoke. Napoleon was forced to leave Spain and hasten to Austria, where he displayed marvellous energy, and in one hundred days beat that unhappy country to the ground, and tore from her one-fifth of her territory.

6. Meanwhile, Wellesley had returned to Lisbon in command of the British army, and had begun the terribly difficult work of rescuing the Peninsula from the grasp of France. His first success was gained at Oporto, which was occupied by Soult with ten thousand men. He drove the French in disorder from the city, and forced their general to destroy his guns, abandon his stores, and cross the frontier into Spain. The next success was at Talavera in April 1809. The battle was one of the hardest fought of the whole campaign, but in the end the French were driven off with great loss. Wellesley's men were too exhausted to pursue, and the battle was practically fruitless. Nevertheless, it inflicted a severe blow on the enemy, for it was the first defeat sustained by a large French army since the advent of Napoleon. The victory of Talavera won Wellesley a peerage; he became Viscount Wellington, and henceforward we may use the title by which he is best known. Wellington now found himself beset by a huge French army, and was obliged to retreat into Portugal. Taking advantage of his retreat, the French once more conquered Spain.

7. Next year Napoleon prepared to drive Wellington into the sea. During the winter, however, the British general had formed a great fortified camp to the north of Lisbon. From the Tagus to the sea, he drew entrenchments which he knew his army could hold against any attack. There, with his back to the ocean, he awaited the onset of



Napoleon on the Battlefield.



the French. After many attempts to break through Wellington's lines, the French general retreated from Portugal with heavy loss. During the year 1811 there was almost continual fighting ; but still, by the end of it, Wellington had made little or no real progress. Relief was, however, to come at last, and from an unexpected quarter.

8. The Tsar Alexander was by this time tired of submitting to Napoleon's mastery ; and to show his defiance, he opened his ports to trade with Britain. Napoleon thereupon declared war on him, and marched a huge army of six hundred thousand men towards the Russian frontier, which was crossed on June 23, 1812.

9. The Russians did not attempt to fight his huge and splendidly-equipped host. They retreated before it, laying waste the country as they fell back. In those thinly-peopled regions the French soon found themselves short of food, and thousands died of hunger. The line of march was marked by the carcasses of dead horses and unburied men.

10. Encouraged by the losses of their enemy, the Russians stood firm, and a great battle was fought some seventy miles from Moscow. One hundred thousand men lay dead and mangled on the field, and the advantage rested with the invaders. A week later, Napoleon's troops entered Moscow with shouts of delight. To their dismay, however, they found it abandoned—silent as a city of the dead. Still worse remained. The inhabitants had set fire to the place, and soon after the French marched in, flames began to shoot up from a thousand different points.

11. The fires burned for five days, and the city soon lay in ruins. Then want of food and shelter compelled Napoleon



to retreat. When he left Moscow his army had dwindled to about one hundred thousand men. The Cossacks hung upon their flanks and rear, and cut off all stragglers. Soon the snow began to fall, and a cruel winter set in. Thousands perished daily of hunger and cold.

12. Starving and benumbed, the army soon became nothing but a disorderly rabble. As Napoleon approached the river Beresina, he learned that the Russians were waiting to dispute the passage. A battery of guns commanded the bridge, and as the French attempted to cross, thousands were mowed down, and heaps of dead and wounded blocked the way. So terrible was the disaster that, when the thaw came, the Russians buried twelve thousand bodies of Frenchmen found in the river. A miserable, crushed remnant of twenty thousand men was all that got back to Germany. This terrible blow led to a general rising against Napoleon.

13. Napoleon returned to Paris and collected a fresh army, with which he once more was victorious, though only for a time. In 1813 he was completely beaten at Leipzig, and France was invaded by the allies. Success, too, had at length crowned Wellington's efforts in Spain. While Napoleon was marching into Russia, Wellington had stormed two important fortresses, and had won a great battle at Salamanca, where he "beat forty thousand men in forty minutes." Then he took Madrid; but as the French massed their forces against him, he had to retire.

14. In 1813 Wellington attacked the French at Vittoria, and routed them. He cut off their retreat, and drove them back into the Pyrenees with the loss of every cannon and wagon they possessed. While the allies were swarming into



The Retreat from Moscow.

(From the picture by Adolphe Yvon. By permission of the Corporation of Manchester.)

France, Wellington, with one hundred thousand veteran troops, on the south-west border, stood ready to fall upon her.

15. The end now rapidly approached. Napoleon struggled heroically, but in vain. Time after time he beat back the invaders ; but numbers triumphed at last, and the allies entered Paris on March 31, 1814. A little later, Wellington fought and won near Toulouse the last battle of the Peninsular War.

16. Napoleon now gave up the throne, and was sent to the island of Elba, where he was allowed £100,000 a year. Lewis the Eighteenth, younger brother of Lewis the Sixteenth, was placed on the French throne, and France was forced to restore almost all the conquests she had made since 1792.

17. In May 1814 ministers from each of the chief Powers met at Vienna to consider the settlement of Europe. There were constant wrangles, and at one time it seemed as if a new war was about to break out. Suddenly Europe was startled by the news that Napoleon had returned to France. Everywhere the army at once declared for him, and like magic the old government melted away, and Napoleon resumed his former position. War was immediately declared.

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### 34. WATERLOO.

1. Now let us visit the most renowned battlefield in all the world. We cross from Dover to Ostend, and take the train for Brussels, the gay and handsome capital of Belgium. Here we take our places on a convenient electric tram, and



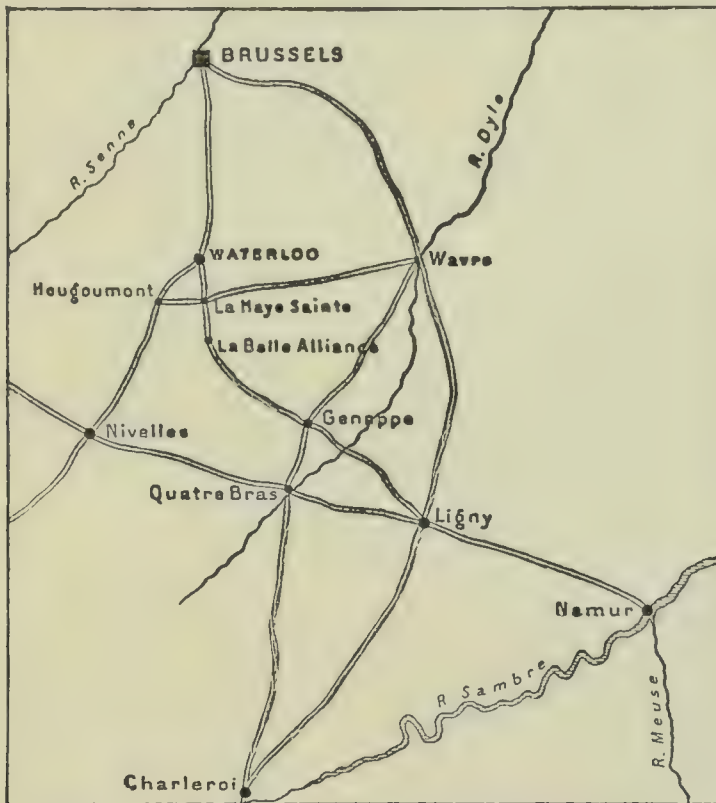
in an hour or so we find ourselves at the village of Waterloo, the headquarters of the Duke of Wellington during the great fight. Leaving Waterloo, we traverse a road bordered on both sides by houses, and after having walked a couple of miles we arrive at the village of Mont St. Jean. Here two roads meet, both of which cross the battlefield.

2. Now we push on beyond the cross-roads to a monument in memory of the Germans who fell in the battle. A quarter of a mile to the right rises the mound of the Belgian Lion. It is two hundred feet in height, and was thrown up on the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded in the battle. At the top of it is a lion made out of the metal of captured French cannon. We ascend the mound, and facing south find ourselves in the best position to survey the battlefield. Unfortunately, the levels of the ground have been much altered by the earth removed to form the mound. Still from our lofty situation we may get a good general idea of the positions occupied by both armies on June 18, 1815.

3. We are now on the ridge of a long chain of low hills with gentle slopes. On this ridge Wellington extended his first line of troops. The ridge, as you will observe, is narrow, so that the second line was enabled to occupy a sheltered position on the sloping ground behind us. One mile distant, across a shallow valley, is another line of hills. These were occupied by the French. Now notice on the main road, to our left, a farmhouse. This is La Haye Sainte, which was occupied by German troops, and protected the allied centre. Follow the road beyond the French position, and you will come to the farm of La

Belle Alliance. During the greater part of the battle Napoleon took up his station a little to the right of this house, where a French monument now stands. Were you to push on along this road for seven or eight miles you would come to Quatre Bras ("four arms"), from which place two roads lead to the river Sambre.

4. Now look along the road to our right front and



observe the chateau of Hougoumont, which was an old ruined place even in 1815. This building, which still bears traces of the fearful scenes that took place about it, was on the right of the allied line, and formed the key to the position. Hougoumont was strengthened by Wellington, and though fiercely attacked was never captured.

Had Napoleon once gained possession of it, the battle would probably have had quite a different ending. Now that we have surveyed the chief points of interest on the field, let us turn to the battle itself.

5. By the beginning of June Napoleon had massed one hundred and twenty thousand men on the Sambre at Charleroi, ready to advance when he should arrive to take command. Wellington's army was scattered in various places from Nivelles westward, while Blücher's was extended from the same place eastward. Wellington's plan was to unite his forces with those of Blücher at Quatre Bras, and block Napoleon's advance. Napoleon, however, was determined to prevent the allied generals from uniting their forces. His plan was to fall upon them before they could unite, and defeat them piecemeal.

6. When Blücher reached Ligny, with eighty thousand men, Napoleon met him, and a desperate battle took place, in which the Prussian general suffered terrible loss, but, still undefeated, retreated in good order on Wavre, in order to join Wellington at Waterloo, according to a previous arrangement he had made with Wellington. Napoleon thought that the Prussians were retreating on the Rhine, and detached thirty-three thousand men under Grouchy to hang on their rear. Grouchy missed the Prussians, and his troops took no part in the great battle.

7. On the same day Ney, with twenty thousand men, appeared before Quatre Bras, where only ten thousand British and an equal force of Belgians had been able to assemble. The Belgians fled before the French cavalry, but the British infantry kept up a dogged resistance while corps





WELLINGTON REVISITING THE FIELD OF WATERLOO.

*(From the picture by B. R. Haydon, R.A.)*

after corps was hurried up. At the close of the day Ney saw that he was outnumbered, and withdrew, while Wellington retreated to the line of heights upon which we are now gazing.

8. Napoleon now pushed on to measure swords with Wellington in person for the first time. On Sunday morning, the eighteenth of June, the two armies faced each other. As Napoleon looked across the valley and saw the British redcoats on the rising ground opposite, he cried, "I have them." He had good reason to believe that he would win. His forces numbered between seventy and eighty thousand men, and he was superior both in guns and in cavalry to his foes. Wellington had about sixty-seven thousand men; but his British troops were mainly raw recruits, and the rest of his forces were very mixed, and included the Belgians who had already fled before the French cavalry.

9. The preceding night had been wet and stormy, and when morning broke Napoleon considered the ground too heavy for cavalry. He therefore delayed the opening of the battle until between eleven and twelve in the forenoon. This delay was fatal. Time was most important to both commanders. Napoleon knew well that he must beat Wellington before Blücher could join him; Wellington, on the other hand, was determined to hold his ground to the last man, so as to give the Prussians time to come up in force and settle the issue of the day.

10. The battle began with a fierce attack on Hougoumont, but it was held right manfully by the British Guards; and though the French won the gardens and orchards, they

could not drive the defenders from the buildings. Then Napoleon sent his heavy columns against the British left, but they were utterly routed. His third effort was against the British centre, which he tried to break by heavy artillery fire and furious cavalry charges.

11. The British formed square, and though assailed for five hours, held fast. They seemed, said an onlooker, "rooted" to the earth. Every attempt to pierce them failed, until even the British privates saw the uselessness of the attempt, and cried, as Napoleon's squadrons charged



them, "Here come those fools again." Every attempt to take the ridge was repulsed with terrible slaughter. At last, in the thick of the fighting, the cannon of the advancing Prussians were heard, and Napoleon made one last desperate effort to break the British line.

12. La Haye Sainte was captured about six in the evening, and Napoleon's cannon were now so near that Wellington's centre was in dire danger. Blücher was rapidly drawing near, and already he was threatening the French right and rear. Like a desperate gambler, Napoleon



now staked all on a charge of the Old Guard. A little after seven he gave the word, and six thousand of his veterans, led by Marshal Ney, were hurled at the long-tried British. As the French rushed up the slope, the British Guards, who had been lying down behind the top of the ridge, sprang to their feet and poured a volley into the enemy. Their columns wavered, and our soldiers charged with the bayonet, hurling the enemy down the hill in utter confusion. Soon after eight o'clock the Prussians made their appearance on the scene, and speedily Napoleon found himself assailed on his flank by forty thousand men.

13. At this juncture, "on the ridge, near the Guards, his figure standing out amidst the smoke against the bright north-western sky, Wellington was seen to raise his hat with a noble gesture—the signal for the wasted line of heroes to sweep like a dark wave from their covered positions, and roll out their lines and columns over the plains. With a pealing cheer the whole line advanced just as the sun was sinking." In vain the French Guards rallied, only to be swept away by the fierce British charges. When darkness fell, the whole French army was in flight. The Prussians went in hot pursuit, and before long the proud French army of the morning was almost destroyed. Wellington and Blücher had lost twenty-two thousand men. The French loss will never be known.

14. The battle was decisive ; the long struggle was at an end ; and Napoleon's star had set. He put spurs to his horse, and rode hard through the midsummer night to escape capture. Fearing death at the hands of the Prussians, he surrendered himself to the captain of the

British man-of-war *Bellerophon*. The British Government banished him to the lonely isle of St. Helena, where he remained until his death in 1821.

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### 35. A PARLIAMENTARY ELECTION.

1. Most of the boys and girls who read this book can remember a parliamentary polling day. Probably they specially remember it because it was a holiday, as the school was needed for a polling station. Let us take our stand before the school on a polling day, and notice what is going on. At the gate is a policeman, and here and there you see knots of men with red or blue ribbons in their buttonholes. In the street are sandwich-men carrying boards with the words "VOTE FOR SMITH" or "VOTE FOR JONES" as the case may be, while on every hoarding there are posters setting forth the special claims of the rival candidates.

2. Every now and then a carriage or a motor car pulls up at the gate and deposits a man or a woman, who enters the school, stays there for a few minutes, and then reappears and goes away. You will notice that the voters are all sorts and conditions of people. Clergymen, doctors, lawyers, business men, shopkeepers, men and women, rich and poor, high and low, all come to record their votes. What is going on inside?

3. Put on the invisible cloak of the fairies and come with me. I enter a classroom and find the presiding officer and his clerk sitting at a table with a large tin box before

them. I go up to the table and say that my name is Thomas Brown, and that I live at 28 Green Street. The clerk looks at the roll of electors, finds my name, ticks it off, and calls out my number—2,837. The presiding officer writes the number 2,837 on the left-hand part or counterfoil. Then he tears off the right-hand portion of the leaf, and having stamped it on the back, hands it to me.

4. I next take this voting paper to one of the three or four little stalls which have been set up at the other side of the room. Each stall has a desk, and a pencil fastened to it by a piece of string. I look at my paper and read,—

1	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>JONES</b></p> <p style="text-align: center;">(William Henry Jones, 35 High Street, Coketown, Colliery Proprietor.)</p>	
2	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>SMITH</b></p> <p style="text-align: center;">(John Edward Smith, 67 Brook Street, London, Barrister-at-law.)</p>	

I take up the pencil and put a cross in the vacant space opposite to the name of the man I am voting for; only this and nothing more. If I add any other mark whatever, my vote will not be counted. Then I fold up the voting paper, and after showing the stamp on the back to the presiding officer, drop the paper into the tin box through the slit at the top, and take my leave. How simple it all seems! How trifling it appears!

5. What have I actually been doing? I have been choosing my representative to the House of Commons. I have been giving my voice for the man whose principles



I wish to see adopted in the government of the country. I have been giving him my authority to levy taxes, to vote national money, to watch over expenditure, and to make laws for me. To-night at eight o'clock the tin box in which I have deposited my vote will be taken, with numbers of others, to the town hall, where the boxes will be opened and the votes counted. The candidate who has the larger number of papers with the cross opposite to his name will be declared by the proper officer to be "elected."

6. Now that you understand the method of electing a member of Parliament, let us learn how the great bulk of people in this country obtained their right to vote. We must go back to the reign of William the Fourth, who came to the throne in 1830 as successor to George the Fourth, son of George the Third. At this time the voters in most of the English boroughs were a handful of men who either sold their votes or were so much under the influence of a neighbouring landlord that they voted just as he ordered them to do. Some of the boroughs were controlled by the Crown, and the few electors in them returned the man recommended to them by the sovereign. The great majority of the seats, however, were freely bought and sold. The town of Sudbury, for example, openly advertised itself for sale to the highest bidder.

7. Two out of three of the members of Parliament were appointed by peers or other powerful persons. In 1793 three hundred and fifty-four out of the five hundred and fifty-eight members of Parliament were really returned by the Government and by one hundred and ninety-seven

persons, most of whom were peers. Seventy members were returned by thirty-five places where there were scarcely any voters at all.

8. Such was the state of things when Lord John Russell, in March 1831, introduced a Reform Bill, and carried it by the narrow majority of one. There was a general election two months later, and the reformers returned with a majority of one hundred and thirty-six. Then a new Bill was introduced by Russell, and was carried by a majority of one hundred and nine. The House of Lords, however, threw it out on October 8, 1831, by a majority of forty-one.

9. The anger of the disappointed people was unbounded. Great mass meetings were held, and there were riots all over the country. Perhaps at no time has there been greater excitement in England. At Bristol, where the disturbances lasted for several days, many of the public buildings were destroyed, and about one hundred persons were killed or wounded. Nottingham Castle, the residence of the Duke of Newcastle, was burned, and almost everywhere riots took place. The Lords were alarmed, and when the Bill was presented to them for the third time they were afraid to reject it, so they cut out a number of clauses, and having almost destroyed its effect, let it pass its second reading.

10. The nation was now roused to the highest pitch of excitement, and everywhere arose the cry, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." The country seemed to be face to face with a violent revolution. At the king's command, the Duke of Wellington tried to form a Ministry;

but he shrank from the horrors of civil war, and resigned the hopeless task. The king was then obliged to recall his old ministers, and to promise to create enough new peers to pass the Bill. Then the peers, at the king's special request, gave way, and the Bill was passed amidst immense rejoicing.

11. The Reform Act—the great Charter of 1832—did away with the “rotten boroughs,” and for the first time gave votes to the middle classes, to the shopkeepers and well-paid artisans in the towns, and to the farmers and yeomen in the country. It did not give votes to the working classes, though it was a step in that direction. Its real effect was seen when, sixteen years later, Britain remained unshaken while thrones and governments were toppling down all over Europe. Those who pleaded for the wider co-operation of the people in the business of government had clearly spoken the truth when they said that reform did not mean revolution, but was a guarantee against sudden and violent change.

12. For thirty years no change was made in the franchise. In 1867, however, a Reform Act was passed which gave a vote to every man who paid rates in a borough, and extended the franchise in the counties. Even lodgers, if they paid an annual rent of £10 and had resided in the same lodgings for a whole year, became entitled to a vote. In 1872 the Ballot Act, which was a measure for making voting secret, was passed into law. You have already seen how it works in your imaginary visit to the polling booth.

13. In 1885 the agricultural labourer in the counties received a vote on the same conditions as the artisan in the towns, and in 1918 the franchise was extended and



granted on similar conditions to women over thirty years of age. In this way nearly every man and many women have a voice in the election of members of Parliament.

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### 36. THEN AND NOW.

1. To-day we will take a walk through the streets of your town, and, from what we see and from what I tell you, try to realize what an enormous change has taken place in



QUEEN VICTORIA AS A GIRL.

almost all the conditions of life since the year 1837, when William the Fourth died and Queen Victoria came to the throne. Here, for instance, is the post office. From this place, for a shilling, you may flash by electric telegraph a brief message of twelve words to any town in the kingdom. In 1837 no such convenience existed. The telegraph had only just ceased to be a toy ; four years later, at the birth of the Prince of Wales, afterwards King Edward the Seventh, it was a complete novelty. In our day it is an absolute necessity of commercial and social life.

2. From the post office, too, you may send a similar telegraphic message to any country in the world by means of the submarine cables which now lie on the floors of all the oceans and most of the seas. In 1837 there was no such thing as a submarine telegraph cable ; and, of course, the possibility of the Marconi system, by means of which

messages are now flashed across the Atlantic without the use of a cable or wire at all, had never entered into any man's mind.

3. Purchase a three-halfpenny stamp at the counter. With it you may send a letter not exceeding three ounces in weight to any part of the British Isles, or a letter not exceeding an ounce in weight to Canada, Egypt, India, the Cape of Good Hope, or Australia. Until 1919 you could have done this for a penny. Before 1837 a letter sometimes took as long as ten hours to travel from Charing Cross to Hampstead, a distance of four miles, at a cost which might amount to one shilling and eightpence, and could not be less than fourpence. Not until the year 1840 was penny postage introduced.

4. As you leave the post office and step again into the street an electric car runs by. For a penny or two it will transport you rapidly from one part of the town to another. When Queen Victoria came to the throne there were no omnibuses, no tramcars, no district railways, no electric cars, no "Tubes," no motor cars. Most of the people who lived in a suburb had to walk into town. Probably one stage-coach a day made the journey; but its accommodation was very limited, and the fares were so high that only rich people could afford to travel by it.

5. Now look up at the lofty standards carrying the electric arc lamps which illuminate the streets at night. In 1837 the electric light, such as we have it to-day, was absolutely unknown, and scientific men had scarcely begun to dream of using electricity as a lighting and motive power. The roads then were wretchedly paved, and here and there were

flickering oil-lamps, which only served to make darkness more visible. Yonder is a telephone station. For a few pence you may actually converse with a person at a considerable distance and conduct your business by word of mouth. I need not tell you that the telephone is quite a recent invention.

6. Here is a Council school—a large, handsome, airy place, filled with the best of apparatus, and staffed by skilled teachers. Schools of this kind are to be found all over the land. Every child must be taught, and in most towns education in the publicly-supported schools is free. Had you lived in the year 1837 you would have looked in vain for such a school. More than half the people were ignorant of reading and writing, and nobody was compelled to attend school. The Lancashire town of Oldham, for example, had not a single day school. In the manufacturing districts nearly half the men and more than half the women could not write their names. Now it would be difficult to find a person who cannot write, and impossible to find one who would not be ashamed to say so.

7. A boy is crying the evening papers. You buy one for a penny; before the Great War it was only a halfpenny. It consists of eight large pages, some of them filled with advertisements, the others containing the latest news, collected by “wireless,” cablegram, telegram, telephone, and letter from every part of the world. In the year 1837 the cheapest newspaper cost about fivepence a copy, and was therefore a luxury of the well-to-do. The news was, of course, what we should call stale, and illustrations rarely if ever appeared. Now, illustrations may actually be telegraphed.



8. Here is a photographer's shop. The art of photography was not discovered until Queen Victoria had been two years on the throne, and the method of making printing blocks from photographs was not devised until quite recent years. Our ancestors had to rely for their portraits on the expensive and slow art of the painter, or on rough outlines cut out of black paper and gummed on to white cardboard. Now photography is so common and so simple that it has become a popular hobby. The most recent developments of the art consist in the production of photographs



RAILWAY TRAVELLING IN 1830.

in colour ; X-ray photography, by means of which photographs of unseen objects, such as the bones beneath the skin, may be made ; and the cinematograph, which brings a series of instantaneous photographs before the eye in rapid succession, and thus gives the idea of movement. Add the gramophone, and future generations will be enabled, not only to see exactly how we lived, moved, and had our being, but also to hear our voices.

9. Here is the fire-engine station, with its motor-engines capable of pumping a steady stream of water on the highest

buildings in the town. Hand-engines of a primitive type alone existed in 1837. Yonder is the town hall, the headquarters of the town's government. Every householder in the place, man and woman alike, has a vote for the election of the councillors who are responsible for the good government of the town. Three years before Queen Victoria came to the throne the mass of the townsfolk had little or no share in the management of local affairs. The government of the town was in the hands of a small body of freemen. By the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 all town councils were made elective, and every ratepaying inhabitant became a municipal voter.

10. That grim building on the outskirts of the town is the prison. Within it are imprisoned the miserable offenders who have broken the laws, and have been sentenced by a judge. They are confined in cells and are given work to do, while their diet is extremely frugal ; but the place itself is spotlessly clean, well ventilated, and well lighted, and the punishment, though sufficient to bring home to the offender a sense of his guilt, is neither harsh nor cruel.

11. A very different state of things existed at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Judges then believed that a criminal could never be won from his wicked ways. Consequently the penalty of death was inflicted for such offences as sheep-stealing, shooting rabbits, cutting down cherry-trees, or stealing any article over five shillings in value. The prison accommodation was extremely bad ; the cells in which the prisoners lived were small, dark, damp, and swarming with vermin. A foul disease, known as jail fever,

always lurked in these horrible places, and sometimes swept off the unhappy captives.

12. Now let us visit the town hospital, where poor people suffering from disease are carefully tended in buildings specially erected for the purpose. When Queen Victoria came to the throne such hospitals as then existed were little better than plague spots, from which pestilence and death were spread abroad. Since 1837 man has learned much about his own body, and has discovered many new methods of soothing its pains and healing its diseases. Perhaps the greatest discovery in all medical history is that of chloroform, which came into use in this country about the year 1847.

13. Now let us visit one of the factories in the town and notice what remarkable changes have taken place in the condition of the workers since the year when Queen Victoria came to the throne. The factory which we visit is a large, clean, well-lighted, and well-ventilated building, and is occupied by many workers—men and women—who are paid good wages, and whose comfort and well-being are carefully provided for. Every year the State gives more and more attention to the conditions of labour in factories, and every year employers do more and more to make their workers comfortable, and therefore more efficient.

14. Now what was the state of things in our factories and workshops in the year 1837? The mills of Lancashire and Yorkshire were little better than pestilential dens. Wagon loads of pauper boys and girls were sent from the London workhouses to be bound apprentices to the millmasters of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Many of them were



set to work at seven, or even at six years of age, and their hours of labour were sometimes thirteen or fourteen daily. Women and children also laboured in coal pits, into which they are now forbidden to descend as workers. They had to crawl on hands and knees, and drag little wagons after them by a chain fastened round their waists. Children of six were frequently employed thus from fourteen to sixteen hours a day. It is impossible to tell the horrors among which they lived. Many of the poor wretches never saw the light of day for weeks together.

15. For fourteen long years men such as Lord Shaftesbury strove to prevent women and children from working more than ten hours a day. Not until 1847 was a Bill passed for the purpose. The first Factory Act, which did much to improve the surroundings of work-people, and to lessen the dangers to which they had been so long exposed, was passed in 1842, and made more effective in 1857. Recent Factory Acts, and the co-operation of employers, have made our factories and workshops palaces compared with what they were in 1837.

16. Now let us pass into a street of working men's houses. Much remains to be done before the housing of our people is as good as it ought to be. Nevertheless, vast improvements have taken place since the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. In the year 1837 workmen's houses were too often dens of filth, without ventilation or drainage. A working man could not then secure a healthy and comfortable home except at a rent far beyond his means. Now we have begun to recognize that the health of our people is our greatest national capital. Parliament has en-

abled Town and County Councils to pull down "rookeries" and to erect workmen's model dwellings in their place.

17. Let us suppose that we are living in a suburb of your town in the year 1837. The first sound we should hear in the early morning would be the "click, click" of a piece of flint striking on a bar of steel held over a tinder-box. This sound might continue for some eight or ten minutes before the sparks set fire to the tinder. Then the tinder would be blown upon until it was hot enough to ignite a thin strip of wood tipped with yellow brimstone. When this match was lighted, the whole room would be filled with the unpleasant fumes of burning sulphur. Lucifer matches were just being sold in the streets as a great curiosity. They were not cheap enough, however, to take the place of the laborious flint and steel, which continued in ordinary use for some years after Queen Victoria began to reign.

18. Before breakfast could be prepared, water would have to be fetched from the public well, or bought from the water-carriers, who went round selling it from house to house. A plentiful supply of pure water, such as we have to-day in almost every dwelling, was then unknown. On the breakfast-table there would be nothing but the products of the immediate neighbourhood. There would be no tea or coffee to drink, and white bread would be considered a rare delicacy. When evening closed in, the houses would be lighted with tallow-candles which frequently needed snuffing, or with sperm-oil lamps which gave out a most unpleasant smell. Paraffin was not then discovered, and coal-gas was only just coming into use. Such was life in the "good old days" of the year 1837.



### 37. THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.

1. Look at this picture. It is a copy of the device which certain persons wore in the crowns of their hats during the year 1844. Examine it carefully, and you will see that it calls attention to the victory of the National Anti-Corn-Law League, and illustrates the benefits which are said to flow from free trade with all the world. Now let us ask, What were the Corn Laws against which the Anti-Corn-Law League was formed? What was their effect? Why did people rejoice so greatly when the object of the League was attained?

2. Now, before I answer these questions, let me take you to one of the Liverpool docks where a ship is being unloaded. Her cargo consists of tobacco, which is not grown very largely for trade purposes in this country.



I want you to notice that every ounce of tobacco which comes off the ship is taken into the tall warehouse hard by, where it is carefully weighed by custom-house officers and stored. The warehouses are in the hands of the custom-house officers, who keep the keys, and do not permit any tobacco to be removed until certain sums of money have been paid to the proper authority.

3. For every pound of tobacco taken away from the warehouse to be sold the merchant who imports the tobacco must pay to the Government a sum varying from 8s. to 15s. This sum so levied is called a custom or an import duty. Of course, the consumer of the tobacco really pays the duty, for the importer charges him not only the cost and the freight of the tobacco, and the profit which he makes by his trading, but also the amount of the duty which he has already paid to the Government.

4. Now let us visit another dock. Here we see a ship which has just arrived from Canada laden with wheat. She takes up her berth close to a great building of many stories, from which suction pipes are put into her hold. The machinery begins to work, and soon every grain of wheat has been transferred from the ship to the warehouse, where it is graded and stored. When it is sold, carts come to the building ; they are loaded with bags of wheat, and off they go to the mills without let or hindrance. I want you to notice that there is not a single custom-house officer about the place, and that the Government does not tax the importer of wheat a single penny. The consumer gets it at its original cost, *plus* the freight and the importer's profit.

5. Most of the necessities of life and nearly all the raw

materials for our factories come into this country duty free. The articles on which duties are levied are, for the most part, articles of luxury, such as wines, spirits, beer, and tobacco, though such things as coffee, chicory, dried fruits, sugar, and tea, which may now be considered necessities, also pay a duty. In the year 1925-26 the Government received from its customs—that is, its import duties—the colossal sum of one hundred and three and a half millions, or more than one-eighth of the total national income.

6. Now look again at the device on page 230. You will observe that the period of starvation is said to have lasted from 1815-43. In 1837 trade was very slack, and thousands were in want of employment. Bad harvest had followed bad harvest, and the price of wheat was up to seventy shillings a quarter. This meant that the poor could not afford to buy bread, and many of them perished. Now, at this time of scarcity, there was abundance of wheat in Russia and elsewhere ready to come into the country and fill the mouths of the hungry people. Why, you ask, was it not imported?

7. Let me explain. Certain laws called Corn Laws were in force. Their object was to enable the British farmer to grow wheat at a profit. Many statesmen thought that if cheap foreign wheat were admitted duty free, it would be sold at such a price that British farmers could not compete with it, and therefore would be ruined. Foreign wheat coming into the country had therefore to pay a duty just as tobacco has now ; and this duty, added to the cost of the wheat and its freight, prevented the importer from selling it in Britain at a lower price than home-grown

wheat. Whatever the price of home-grown wheat happened to be, foreign wheat, under these Corn Laws, could not be sold for less.

8. While Britain remained chiefly an agricultural country, the pinch was not felt. When she became mainly industrial, the manufacturers saw that if foreign corn came into the country free of duty, their workmen would get cheaper food, and wages would not need to be so high. They perceived, too, that the corn bought abroad would have to be paid for by British manufactures, and that this would result in fresh markets being opened to British goods.

9. The statesman who first brought the question of repealing the duty on foreign corn before the people was Richard Cobden, a cotton manufacturer of Manchester. Between the years 1834 and 1836 he published several pamphlets showing that Britain was hampered by her system of customs duties, and by the heavy taxation and debt with which she had loaded herself by interfering in the affairs of the Continent. He came to the conclusion that Great Britain should pursue a policy of free trade, and should interfere as little as possible in affairs abroad. Shortly after his pamphlets appeared, Cobden threw all his energies into the movement which was destined to make his name famous in British history.

10. In 1836 an Anti-Corn-Law Association on a small scale was begun in London, but nothing came of it. Two years later seven merchants met together in Manchester to consider how to bring about the repeal of the obnoxious laws. From this small meeting sprang the great Anti-Corn-Law League. Once fairly started, the League grew in





The Coronation of Queen Victoria.

strength and importance. Enormous meetings were held in the large towns, and branch associations were formed in all parts of the country. Money was readily raised to carry on the work by holding bazaars and inviting subscriptions. In Manchester a great hall, known as the Free Trade Hall, was built, and used for meetings in support of the cause.

11. John Bright, the son of a Rochdale Quaker who had made a fortune in the manufacture of carpets, was a fellow-worker with Cobden in this movement. Probably English public life never produced a greater orator than John Bright. Gifted with a commanding presence, a fine voice, and great gifts of speech, Bright soon became a power in the land. He and Cobden were warm friends, almost brothers. Together on public platforms, and, later, in the House of Commons, they displayed a strength, skill, and patience of argument almost unequalled in the history of public movements.

12. Sir Robert Peel, the Prime Minister, was in favour of many of the principles advocated by Cobden and Bright, though he was not as yet ready to remove the duty from foreign corn. Early in 1845, however, he was almost persuaded. Cobden had addressed meetings of farmers and labourers throughout the country, and his arguments began to produce their effect on the very persons whose livelihood was supposed to be taken away by the new movement. A few months later an event occurred which made Peel at one with the Anti-Corn-Law League. In the autumn of the same year, after months of cold, wet weather, the potato rot began in Ireland. Most of the Irish peasantry then lived almost entirely on potatoes, and the failure of the

crop meant famine. Four millions of people were without food, and thousands died of hunger, and thousands who survived emigrated to America. It was evident that the corn duty must be taken off—at least for a time.

13. Peel felt that to relax the Corn Laws was to pronounce their doom. While he hesitated, Lord John Russell, the leader of the Opposition, published a famous letter in which he declared for Free Trade. "Let us unite," he said, "to put an end to a system which has been proved to be the blight of commerce, the bane of agriculture, the source of bitter divisions among classes, the cause of penury, fever, mortality, and crime among the people." The Opposition was now ready to join hands with the Anti-Corn-Law League.

14. The Cabinet met, and Peel recommended an early assembling of Parliament, with the view of bringing forward some measure for abolishing the Corn Laws. Two members of the Cabinet refused to be parties to any such measure. Accordingly Peel resigned, and the queen sent for Lord John Russell to form a Ministry. Lord John Russell found himself unable to do so, and the queen was obliged to ask Sir Robert Peel to withdraw his resignation. He returned to office, and in 1846 repealed the Corn Laws, to the huge delight of the Leaguers, some of whom sat up all night to greet the dawn of the day of free imports. The prosperity shown in the device at the beginning of this chapter did not immediately follow. Prices remained high for twenty years. Then American grain flooded our markets, and the day of the cheap loaf began.



### 38. PEEL AND FREE TRADE.

1. Many industrial towns of Great Britain boast a statue to Sir Robert Peel, the great statesman who repealed the Corn Laws. On many of them is the following passage from the last speech which he delivered as Prime Minister: "It may be I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in those places which are the abode of men whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow—a name remembered with expressions of goodwill when they shall recreate their exhausted strength with abundant untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice." Let us learn something more of the life of the man who thus wished to be remembered.

2. Sir Robert Peel was born in 1788, and from the first was intended for a political career. When he was quite a small boy his father would set him, by way of training, to repeat every Sunday evening the morning and afternoon sermons of the day. He was educated at Harrow and Oxford, where he gained high honours in classics and mathematics. In 1809 his father, who was a very wealthy calico printer of Blackburn, bought for him a seat in the House of Commons as member for Cashel. From the first he made his mark in Parliament, and speedily became recognized as an able speaker and a wise and hard-working member.

3. In 1811 he took office as Under Secretary of State for the Colonies, and the next year became Chief Secretary for Ireland. In 1822 he was Home Secretary, and in that

position he carried an admirable measure for reforming the harsh criminal law of the time. In 1828 he was again Home Secretary, under the Duke of Wellington. So far he had been strongly Conservative. Now he showed that his political opinions were changing. In 1829 he introduced and carried a Bill to permit Catholics to sit in Parliament, and have equal political rights with their Protestant neighbours.



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

4. In 1830, on the death of his father, Peel became a baronet. Twice during the period 1834–39 he was Prime Minister, but in each case his period of office was brief and troubled. In 1841 he led an attack on the Ministry which was successful. In September of the same year he came into office as Prime Minister at the head of a large majority, mainly composed of landed gentry, who derived most of their wealth from the duty on imported corn.

5. At this time Sir Robert Peel was by far the most powerful man in the House of Commons. Possessed of a high, cold character, he was respected by opponents as well as by friends. He was a debater of great ability, and as a manager of the nation's money affairs he had not an equal. The great feature of his administration was the repeal of the Corn Laws, described in the last lesson.

6. Now let us learn how Peel established Free Trade in this country. The early years of Queen Victoria's reign were years of peace, and the government was conducted in

a thrifty manner; yet both ends could never be made to meet. The State revenue was then mainly derived from customs—that is, from duties levied on imported goods; and from excise—that is, duties levied on certain articles produced within the country. We who live in Free Trade times can scarcely realize the number of articles which were subject to tax when Queen Victoria came to the throne. Soap, glass, bricks, windows, salt, paper, medicine, newspapers, and dozens of other things, had to pay duty. In the year 1821 no fewer than 1,799 separate articles were taxed. In order to enforce the payment of these taxes the various trades were subject to a strict oversight which hampered and hindered them greatly.

7. The customs duties were even more burdensome. No fewer than twelve hundred articles were subject to duty—the idea being to bring in as few things as possible from abroad, and to compel people to buy the goods manufactured at home. The main object of the customs was not so much to fill the public treasury as to protect the home manufacturer or grower from foreign competition.

8. In 1842 Peel, with the assistance of William Ewart Gladstone, reduced the duties on seven hundred and fifty out of the twelve hundred articles subject to customs duties, and imposed in their place an income tax. This experiment was at once successful. Instead of the usual balance on the wrong side, there was a small surplus in the years 1844 and 1845. The income tax, however, was still only an experiment, and the three years for which it was at first imposed were drawing to a close when Peel resolved on further reforms. He retained the income tax for another period,



and further reduced the customs duties by sweeping away four hundred and fifty of the articles in the list. He did away with all export duties, and some of the excise duties. Finally, as we have already seen, he removed the keystone of the Protective system by repealing the Corn Laws.

9. The rage and dismay of the Protectionist party at what they called their betrayal can hardly be understood at this distance of time. The Tory squires did not hesitate to denounce Peel as a traitor. Their new leader, Benjamin Disraeli, attacked him most bitterly. Peel bore all the attacks calmly and firmly. Whigs and disappointed Protectionists united and defeated him, and in June 1846 he resigned. The news of his fall was received by the great majority of the nation with much regret. He refused to accept any honours, and quietly retired to his country seat, where he lived happily amidst the pictures and books which he loved so well.

10. Four years later he was thrown from his horse as he rode up Constitution Hill. The accident proved fatal, and he died on July 2, 1850. Though much misunderstood in his lifetime, history praises the honesty, zeal, moral courage, and independence of character which he brought to the service of his country.

11. The system of Free Imports, or Free Trade, as it is commonly called, is still the trade policy of Great Britain. She has held fast to the system ever since the days of Peel, even though every other great nation is more or less Protectionist. In June 1903 Mr. Chamberlain and other leading members of the Unionist party proposed to modify the Free Trade system, in order to give a preference in our

markets to colonial produce. Small duties were proposed on foreign corn, meat, and dairy produce, and on completely manufactured foreign goods. The whole question was thrashed out in the press and on the platform, and the nation had an opportunity of once more examining the *pros* and *cons* of Free Trade. The continuance of Free Imports was the test question at the general election of 1906. The result was an overwhelming victory for the policy of Cobden and Peel.

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### 39. THE CRIMEAN WAR.—I.

1. Look at a map of Russia in Europe as it was before the Great War. You notice that it is a vast land mass, with three sections of seaboard—namely, that surrounding the White Sea, that washed by the Baltic Sea, and the northern and eastern shores of the Black Sea. The White Sea is well-nigh shut up for a great part of the year owing to the Arctic ice. The Baltic coast lies far from the ocean and the great highways of trade, and it too is thickly frozen over from October to May. The Black Sea is almost entirely land-locked, and its only entrance and exit is through the narrow straits of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. In 1854 these straits were in the hands of the Turks, and only by permission of the Turks could Russian ships then get into the Mediterranean Sea at all.

2. Now, the aim of Russia at that time was to become a great sea Power. To do this she needed to extend her boundaries until they touched the ocean at some point which would enable her ships to compete freely with those of other

nations. For centuries the splendid port of Constantinople had been an object of desire to Russia, and you can easily understand why she should covet it. The possession of this port was a duty which Russian Tsars almost left as a legacy to their successors. The Tsar Nicholas, who began to reign in 1825, was a man of great ambition, and he made this the aim and object of his life.

3. About the year 1840 Turkey seemed to be falling to pieces, and her weakness was Russia's opportunity. Fearing for her possessions in India, Britain set herself to oppose Russian advance by upholding the Sultan, who was then threatened with defeat at the hands of his vassal, Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt. Prussia and Austria joined with Great Britain, and British forces were sent against Mehemet Ali, who was subdued in 1841.

4. For the moment the ambition of Nicholas was foiled. Nevertheless, all observers saw that the break-up of the Turkish Empire was only a matter of time. Lord Palmerston, almost alone amongst European statesmen, believed that Turkey had a future. On the other hand, the Tsar firmly believed that Turkey was on the point of falling to pieces. "We have on our hands," he said to the British ambassador, "a sick man—a very sick man. It would be a great misfortune if, one of these days, he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made." With this object in view he suggested a division of the Turkish dominions, and offered Crete and Egypt as Britain's share of the spoil. The offer was, of course, refused.

5. In 1852 a trifling cause of difference arose between France and Russia. The members of the Latin and Greek



Churches who had charge of the Holy Places in Palestine began to quarrel. The Latin monks claimed that certain of these places should be entrusted to them, and to them alone. This claim the Greek monks disputed. As both Greeks and Latins were Christians, the matter would seem almost too small for discussion; but beneath these trifles lay more serious questions.

6. The Tsar Nicholas supported the Greeks, and Lewis Napoleon was the champion of the Latins. Both parties brought pressure to bear on the Sultan, who at last decided in favour of the Latin Church. Thereupon the Tsar proceeded to strong measures. He put forward a claim that the Sultan should recognize him as the protector of all Christians within the Turkish Empire. This would have given Russia a right to interfere in the internal government of Turkey.

7. The demand was, of course, resisted, and in 1853 Nicholas sent his armies across the Pruth, and occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, two tributary states of Turkey. Britain, though not in the least interested in the quarrel about the Holy Places, was very much concerned at the occupation of Turkish territory by Russian troops. She feared that it was the first step towards bringing about the sick man's death by violent means. Consequently, Sir Stratford Canning, afterwards Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, was sent to Constantinople. He knew the East well, and could be trusted to counteract the Russians. For the Tsar Nicholas he had a frank and bitter hatred, and with the Sultan he had great influence.

8. While the dispute about the Holy Places was in its

early stages, Sir Stratford Canning was in England, and he did not leave for Constantinople until matters had become serious. He was therefore armed with special powers in case of need. One of these special powers was authority to summon the British fleet to the Dardanelles. Sir Stratford Canning was not anxious to avoid war, and told the Sultan of his power to summon the British fleet. The result was that the Sultan rejected the Russian proposals in such a way that it was impossible for the Russian minister without loss of dignity to remain in Constantinople.

9. Even at the moment when the Russian troops entered Turkish territory, and for long after, sincere efforts to maintain peace would probably have been successful; but the general feeling in France and Britain was in favour of war. Lord Aberdeen, the British Prime Minister, was a friend of the Tsar, and was anxious to preserve peace; but Lord Palmerston, and other ministers, drove him into war against his will and better judgment.

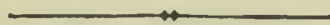
10. The Tsar did much to avert war. He declared that his only object in entering Turkish territory was to hold certain provinces in pledge until the question in dispute had been settled. He even accepted a draft agreement drawn up by the Powers as the basis of a settlement. The Governments of Britain and France, however, declared that the agreement was not satisfactory to them, and the French and British fleets passed the Dardanelles in October. On March 27, 1854, war was declared by Great Britain and France against the Tsar.

11. It is difficult to see for what object war was declared. No doubt there were, and still are, serious questions to be

settled with reference to the Turkish Empire; but these questions would be no nearer settlement if Russia were defeated. Yet there were but few Britons who supported men like Cobden and Bright, who were strongly opposed to the war.

12. Thus did Britain drift into a fierce struggle with the most powerful monarch in Europe. During the long years of peace since the battle of Waterloo our army had been much neglected. It was now weak in numbers, and utterly unprepared for the field. Nevertheless, even before the declaration of war, the allies hurried troops and stores eastward. The command of the British forces was given to Lord Raglan, a veteran of sixty-six, who had served as Wellington's aide-de-camp in Spain. The leader of the French was Marshal St. Arnaud, a soldier whose experience had been gained in the Algerian wars.

13. The campaign opened in the provinces of Turkey which had been occupied by the Russian troops. As these provinces were semi-independent states, the Austrians combined with the Turks, and forced the Russians to withdraw from them. After the retreat of the Russians, Austria decided that her part in the contest was at an end, and Britain and France were left to carry on the war.



#### 40. THE CRIMEAN WAR.—II.

1. Look again at the map of Russia in Europe, and find the peninsula of the Crimea, which juts into the Black Sea. It is roughly diamond-shaped, and is united to the main-



land by the isthmus of Perekop, which is only four miles wide at its narrowest point. The coast of the peninsula is much indented, and possesses a large number of admirable harbours and anchorages. The chief physical feature of the Crimea is the Yaila chain of mountains, which is a continuation of the Caucasus, and fringes a great portion of the southern shore. The only rivers worth mention are the Alma and the Tchernaya, both of which fall into the Black Sea on the south-west of the peninsula.

2. No one knows exactly who suggested the Crimea as the main theatre of the war which broke out in 1854, but naturally the eyes of military and naval men in England and France were directed to the strongly-fortified harbour of Sebastopol, which sheltered the Russian fleet in the Black Sea. Sebastopol was the great arsenal of Russia. In the minds of the allies it was the base of all Russia's efforts at conquest. If Sebastopol could be taken and destroyed, military men thought that Russia would be forced to sue for peace.

3. After wearisome delays, a combined force of British, French, and Turks was landed at Eupatoria, about forty miles north of Sebastopol, on September 14, 1854. The total strength of the allied armies was sixty-four thousand men, twenty-seven thousand of whom were British. The landing of the troops was completed on the eighteenth, and next day the allies moved southward in the direction of Sebastopol. A few hours' march brought them within sight of the Russian army, which was strongly posted on a line of hills rising steeply from the little river Alma.

4. The allies waded the stream under a deadly fire from the Russian guns, and forced their way up the heights.

The Russians fought stubbornly, and the invaders fell fast. So steep was the ascent that the wounded as they fell rolled helplessly down the hill. No effort of the Russians, however, could check the resolute advance of the allies. While the infantry charged the enemy in front, Lord Raglan brought two guns to bear upon the Russian flank. A well-directed fire cut lanes through the masses of the enemy, and the dismayed Russians broke and fled. Our first battle was fought and our first victory gained.

5. Lord Raglan desired to pursue the enemy and make a dash at Sebastopol, but Marshal St. Arnaud refused on the ground that his troops were worn out. The effect of delay in following up the pursuit was fatal; the Russians were given time to protect themselves behind their fortresses and in their trenches. Valuable time was also wasted by the allies in choosing a suitable position for an attack on Sebastopol itself. Had an assault been made at once, the fortress might possibly have been carried by storm. After a month's delay siege-guns were brought up to the heights on the south side of the city. Then twelve or fourteen hundred pieces of heavy cannon kept up for many days such a fire as no city had endured before. Sebastopol, however, was not much weakened, and the allies soon discovered that speedy success was no longer to be hoped for.

6. It was during the autumn days, when the terrible Russian winter was fast approaching, that an episode took place which will be remembered when other incidents in the Crimean War have been forgotten. The Russian commander decided to remain no longer strictly on the defensive, but to advance, and, if possible, dislodge the British from the

position they had taken up at Balaklava, on the sea-coast, south of Sebastopol. With this object in view he ordered a large party of his troops to attack certain redoubts defended by the Turks, and having captured them, to assault Balaklava itself. The Heavy Brigade of British cavalry was ordered to intercept the Russians. It dashed through and through a largely superior body of the enemy, and commenced that brilliant series of cavalry charges which marked the day.

7. After this charge of the Heavy Brigade, on October 25, 1854, the Russians were seen to be removing the cannon from the redoubts which they had captured from the Turks. Lord Raglan, who was watching them, saw that a well-timed attack would prevent the Russians from carrying out their plan. He therefore ordered the Light Brigade to charge and save the guns; but his commands, which were not very clearly expressed, were misunderstood. The officer who received the orders thought that Lord Raglan meant the Light Brigade to charge a battery of artillery which was stationed in the centre of the Russian position. Accordingly he gave the command.

8. Every man in the brigade knew that some terrible mistake had been made, but no soldier shrank from his duty of obedience. "Theirs not to reason why, theirs but to do and die." Six hundred and seven men set forth on that memorable ride, but only one hundred and ninety-eight returned. Though "some one had blundered," the blunder was atoned for by a bravery never to be forgotten. All Europe rang with wonder and admiration at the splendid but useless charge. The French general Bosquet cried, "It is magnificent, but it is not war." Nevertheless, it lives in



literature, for the splendid courage which the cavalymen displayed inspired Tennyson to write his "Charge of the Light Brigade."

9. Less than a fortnight after the battle of Balaklava, the British army was attacked by the Russians in great force. About daybreak on the fifth of November fifty thousand Russians advanced against the British lines across the Bridge of Inkermann. Concealed by a thick fog which shrouded hill and valley, they were well within striking distance before their approach was discovered. Swarming up the heights, they charged the scanty British force which held the plateau of Inkermann. The Russians should have had an easy success, for the defenders of the position were fearfully outnumbered, and were short of powder. The fiercest engagement of the whole war followed; a series of stubborn hand-to-hand fights took place; and the Russians were driven off, with a loss of twelve thousand men.

10. After the battle of Inkermann a period of hardship was endured by the allies such as has seldom been the lot of any army. The soldiers were encamped in exposed positions, on upland plains swept by icy winds from Northern Russia. Fierce storms on the Black Sea destroyed transports conveying clothing, blankets, provisions, and hospital necessities. On land, tents were blown away, food ran short, and our soldiers were numbed and stiffened by the unaccustomed cold. So intense was the frost that no one could touch any metal substance without the risk of losing the skin of his hand.

11. The transport arrangements were so bad that stores went hopelessly astray. The men were often half-fed;

their clothes were in rags ; their boots were worn to tatters ; they slept on the wet ground, exhausted by toil, and cold, and hunger. Fuel was not to be had, and often they could not cook their food. They sickened and died by hundreds, and the British army, always victorious in actual warfare, melted swiftly away under the neglect or mismanagement of its leaders. At one time the army consisted of eleven thousand men under arms and thirteen thousand in hospital.

12. In the midst of this misery and wretchedness there was one ray of light, which came from the devotion of a noble woman. The Secretary for War, horrified at the condition of the wounded, begged Miss Florence Nightingale, the daughter of a wealthy country gentleman, to undertake the charge of the hospitals at Scutari. She was thoroughly equipped for her work, and readily accepted the task. She brought order out of chaos, and earned the gratitude of the nation, and the blessings of thousands of wounded and suffering men.

13. When the miseries of our soldiers were reported in Britain, great was the anger of the people against those who were responsible for provisioning and clothing the army. Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was forced to resign ; and his successor, Lord Palmerston, began to conduct the struggle with all his usual vigour. Fresh troops and supplies were hurried to the Crimea ; a railway was built from Balaklava to the front ; and soon Britain had nearly forty thousand men under arms, while France had one hundred thousand men.

14. The terrible winter of 1854-55 was scarcely over when the Tsar Nicholas died, and there seemed to be hopes



**Balaklava.**

*(From the picture by John Charlton in the Blackburn Art Gallery. By permission of the Copyright Society.)*



of peace, which, however, were not realized. The war went on. The allies had never for a moment loosened their hold on the besieged city, which was soon a mass of ruins. The Russians then fortified a position outside the town, and the allies gradually drew their trenches closer to the Russian works, until at one point the opposed armies were within speaking distance of each other. A very strong earthwork, the Malakoff, faced the French position; another, the Redan, was in front of the British. The allies determined to carry these works by assault.

15. On September 5, 1855, the French, whose trenches were now within fifteen yards of the enemy, were able, after a brief but violent struggle, to take the Malakoff. The British had a considerable distance to go under a murderous fire, but they forced their way into the Redan. Unfortunately, they were left without support, and were driven out again with terrible loss. The Russian position, however, could no longer be held, and by means of a bridge of boats across the harbour the troops abandoned the southern side of the city. With this retreat from Sebastopol the war ended.

16. The loss of life on both sides had been enormous, more especially on the side of Russia, for her soldiers had perished in thousands during the long marches towards the Crimea. Everything tended to make Russia desire peace. Neither did the allies wish to continue the conflict, and in March 1856 the Treaty of Paris was signed. By this treaty the Black Sea was declared to be open to the commerce of all the world. No warships, however, were to be kept on it, nor were any fortresses to be built on its shores. The

Powers agreed that they had no right to interfere in the government of Turkey, not even to protect the Sultan's Christian subjects.

17. Britain had lost some twenty-four thousand men, forty-one millions had been added to the National Debt, and the military glory which had been secured was but a poor return for so great a waste of blood and treasure. The Crimean War saved for a time the Ottoman Government, but even this poor success was not lasting. Twenty-two years after the close of the campaign Russia and Turkey were at war again.

#### 41. THE INDIAN MUTINY.—I.

1. To-day we will in imagination visit the busy Indian city of Cawnpur, which stands on the right bank of the Ganges, about two hundred and fifty miles south-east of Delhi. Cawnpur has none of the glories of the older Indian cities, but it possesses a Memorial Garden which recalls one of the most terrible incidents in that great mutiny of Sepoys, or native Hindu soldiers, which began in May 1857.

2. Let us visit the garden. A marble cross set in a grass plot shaded by solemn yew trees marks the scene of the tragedy, and not far away is an enclosure. In the centre of it, above a long disused well, there stands a beauti-



THE ANGEL OF THE WELL AT CAWNPUR.

ful marble figure representing an angel carrying in either hand the palm of victory. Round the base of the statue runs this inscription :—

“ Sacred to the perpetual Memory of a great company of Christian People, chiefly women and children, who, near this spot, were cruelly massacred by the followers of the rebel Nana Dhoomdopunt of Bithwoor, and cast, the dying with the dead, into the well below, on July 15, 1857.”

3. Standing on the spot where this terrible deed was done, let us inquire how the Mutiny arose, how it was sub-



THE ENCLOSURE AT CAWNPUR.

dued, and what were its consequences. Two years after Queen Victoria came to the throne an expedition was sent into Afghanistan to counteract Russian influence in that country, by dethroning the

Ameer and setting up another ruler more friendly to Britain.

4. This seemed to have been accomplished, when suddenly an insurrection broke out in Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan, and the British envoy was murdered. The British army was forced to retire, under a treaty of protection ; but during the long and terrible march through the Khaibar Pass every soul but one perished either at the hands of the Afghans or by cold and hunger. Out of the whole expedition only one man, Dr. Brydon, fainting and too weak to speak, rode into Jelalabad to tell the hideous tale. The honour of the British arms was afterwards



restored ; but a terrible sacrifice of life and treasure had been made, for no advantage at all.

5. The next event of special importance in Indian history was the conquest of the Punjab, or the "land of the five rivers," in the north-west of the peninsula. The conquest was completed in 1849, while Lord Dalhousie was Governor-General. Three years earlier, after a series of hard-fought battles, the inhabitants had submitted, and a British protectorate had been established. In 1848 the province rose again, and a second severe struggle began. The Sikhs fought stubbornly, but Lord Gough, the British commander, ended the war by the victory of Gujerat, and the Punjab became British territory.

6. In the days of Dalhousie the power and territory of the East India Company greatly increased. Oudh, Lower Burma, and other states were annexed ; and many important public works were undertaken in the provinces which the Company had previously acquired. Lord Dalhousie paid special attention to the making of roads and canals, and cut the first sod of the first Indian railway. When Lord Canning succeeded him, in 1856, there seemed to be every prospect of a period of peace and prosperity. No one would then have believed that in less than a year's time the whole valley of the Ganges from Patna to Delhi would be in a state of open rebellion. Yet so it was.

7. The Indian Mutiny, which occurred in 1857, was a revolt of the Sepoys or native soldiers in the employment of the East India Company. The Sepoys were, for the most part, men of a fairly high caste, who observed with great strictness their religious practices. One of these

practices is not to eat the flesh of the cow or the pig. A Hindu who puts to his lips the flesh of these forbidden animals at once "loses caste"—that is, he is cut off from the section of society to which he belongs. Not only is the man who has lost caste shunned by his fellows, but he is supposed to suffer continued misery after death.

8. The immediate cause of the outbreak was the introduction of the Enfield rifle, which required the use of greased cartridges. The soldiers had to bite off the ends of the cartridges, which had been, or were thought to have been, greased with the fat of the cow or the pig. When, therefore, the Sepoys bit the new cartridges, their lips would come in contact with the grease, and they would at once lose caste. The Sepoys believed that the greasing of the cartridges was a design of the Government to cause them to lose their caste and to drive them to adopt Christianity. In a country such as India, where custom never changes, where rumour spreads rapidly and is believed without question, such a belief was like the spark which lights the forest fire.

9. At Meerut, an important military station some forty miles north-east of Delhi, a number of Sepoys had refused to use the greased cartridges, and had been tried by court-martial. The men were stripped of their uniform, sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, and on Saturday, the ninth of May, were marched to jail in fetters. There were tears, entreaties, and curses as the fettered prisoners were removed, and intense excitement amongst the Sepoys. On Sunday, May 10, 1857, when the European soldiers were gathering for church, a sudden movement took place in the native quarters. The prisoners were rescued, officers were

shot, houses were fired, and Europeans—men, women, and children—were put to the sword. The Mutiny had begun.

10. Unfortunately, the officers stationed at Meerut took no immediate steps to suppress the outbreak. In the meantime the mutineers galloped to Delhi, and proclaimed the restoration of the Mogul Empire. On the following day, the eleventh of May, the Mohammedan population of Delhi joined the revolt. The Europeans in the city were unable to make any stand against the mutineers, and were forced to quit Delhi, after blowing up the powder magazine. A brave telegraph clerk had just time to flash the dreadful news to Lahore before he was cut down. The Mutiny had now become a rebellion. It spread rapidly throughout the North-West Provinces, Oudh, and Lower Bengal, and massacres took place everywhere, sometimes without warning. None of the Sepoys in these districts could be trusted.

11. Fortunately, there were parts of India to which the rebellion did not extend. The Sikhs, as the inhabitants of the Punjab are called, remained loyal, and rendered valuable help to the British forces at the siege of Delhi. In Madras also and in Bombay the troops, for the most part, remained true. In Central India, however, the Mutiny was general, and in Hyderabad only the native prince Sir Salar Jang remained friendly. The main interest of the war gathered round three centres—Cawnpur, Lucknow, and Delhi.

12. Now let us learn what took place in the Memorial Garden of Cawnpur in which we are standing. In the town there was the largest native garrison in India, and a disinherited prince, named Nana, was proclaimed leader of the



mutineers. The name of this man is already familiar to you, for you read it on the base of the statue in the enclosure. The European residents and troops at Cawnpur took refuge behind hastily-constructed earthworks, and held out against the enemy during the burning heat of an Indian June. Including women and children, they only numbered about eleven hundred, and it was clear that the struggle could not be long maintained unless help came.

13. There seemed to be but little chance of help coming, and the sufferings of the besieged were terrible. They therefore accepted the terms offered by Nana, who promised to send them down the river to Allahabad. No sooner had these unhappy people embarked in boats, than a fire of musketry and artillery opened on them from Nana's soldiery, who lined the banks of the river. In a few minutes half of the little party was killed or wounded. The survivors were seized and carried back to Cawnpur, where the men were at once shot. The women and children, two hundred and six in number, were held captive in a small building.

14. Eighteen days later five men armed with sabres were seen in the twilight to approach this building. They entered the room, and quietly closed the door. Shrieks were heard and low groans, and the sound of blows as the savages hewed to death the unresisting women and little children who filled the room. Thrice a hacked and blunted sabre was passed out, and a sharper weapon received in exchange. Next morning the mutilated bodies were cast into yonder well, above which the sorrowing angel now stands in perpetual memory.

15. When, two days later, an avenging British force,

under General Havelock, reached Cawnpur, the blood of the victims still lay on the stone pavement of the hall; fragments of ladies' and children's dresses, soaked in blood, were scattered all around. The traces of this awful crime filled our soldiers with horror, and steeled their hearts for the work of vengeance. In their fury at the treachery and cruelty of the Sepoys our soldiers were often as bloodthirsty as the mutineers themselves.

16. At Lucknow the Europeans were fortunate in having for their leader that brave and resolute man, Sir Henry Lawrence. He had foreseen what was likely to happen, and had fortified the Residency. Thither the Europeans of Lucknow retired under his command on the second of July. There was only one British regiment to defend the place against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy. The little garrison lost its brave commander, who was killed in the course of the defence; but, inspired by his courage and resolution, it managed to hold out until Havelock and Outram arrived with reinforcements on the twenty-fifth of September. Even then the garrison was not relieved, as the relievers themselves were again besieged. They were finally rescued when Sir Colin Campbell fought his way in on the seventeenth of November.

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## 42. THE INDIAN MUTINY.—II.

1. Meanwhile a siege of a different character was proceeding at Delhi, where the city garrisoned by thirty thousand rebels, was besieged by a British force numbering only

eight thousand. The defences of Delhi covered an area of three square miles, and were of a strong character. The British army occupied a ridge to the north of the city, and held it in spite of all the efforts of the Sepoys to dislodge them. Dwindling daily from battle and disease, they held on until Nicholson arrived from the Punjab in August with a brigade and siege train.

2. Nicholson advised a speedy attack on the place, and his advice at last prevailed. Fifty-four guns were brought into position, and on the fourteenth of September the city was stormed. One of the great gates, known as the Kashmir Gate, was blown in by a devoted band of engineers, nearly all of whom perished ; and after six days' fighting in the streets Delhi was won, and once more held by British troops. The brave Nicholson, the hero of the siege, did not live to see the capture of the city. He fell at the head of a storming party, and his death marks the turning-point in the history of the Mutiny. With the relief of Lucknow and the fall of Delhi the worst of the danger was past.

3. From the beginning of the revolt the British had decided on a policy of merciless vengeance. Awful examples were made of captured mutineers, some of whom were blown away from the mouth of cannon. The Mutiny had been a terrible struggle, in which even British tenacity and courage were hardly able to cope with the overpowering numbers of drilled and well-armed native soldiers. Our success was largely due to the fidelity of the Sikhs and other native troops, to the loyalty of some of the native princes, and to the hold which a century of good government had given us upon Bengal and the south. After the



Mutiny was over people began to attempt to explain it, or to draw lessons from it for the future government of India.

4. As we have pointed out, the immediate cause of the outbreak was the outrage supposed to have been committed on the religious feelings of the Sepoys. There were, however, deeper reasons. It is possible that the native troops had begun to realize their strength, and were encouraged by an old prophecy that the hundredth anniversary of Plassey would see the power of the British broken in India. They had learned in the Afghan War that the British troops were not invincible, and strange stories were afloat amongst them of British disasters in the Crimea. They thought that Britain was a decaying nation.

5. When the Mutiny broke out there were only twenty-two thousand European soldiers in the peninsula. The Sepoys believed that if they could overthrow this small army they would be able to drive the British out of India for ever. When once the Sepoys had mutinied, there were many discontented persons ready to swell their ranks. The most powerful and active of these were the wealthy dethroned princes, who had little to occupy them but conspiracy and plans of revolt.

6. As soon as the Mutiny was suppressed, steps were taken to rectify the military faults which had rendered the revolt possible. The native troops were reduced in number, and the European force was increased. At the time of the Mutiny there were six native soldiers to every European soldier ; now there are only two. All the important military posts are now garrisoned by Europeans. Ever since

the Mutiny, India has been divided into districts, with separate armies.

7. The immediate result of the Mutiny was a great change in the system of Indian government. The East India Company ceased to exist, and its powers were taken over by the Crown. A Secretary of State for India was appointed, and supreme authority was transferred to the British Parliament and the Crown. The title "Empress of India," which was assumed by Queen Victoria in 1876, shows that India has now passed from the control of a body of merchants to that of the British nation.

8. Several very important points must always engage the attention of those concerned with the welfare of India. The first and perhaps the most important point is the vast Indian population which is subject to the British Crown. It numbers nearly three hundred millions, a total too large for us to grasp its meaning. We shall perhaps form some idea of the vastness of the population when we learn that one person in every five existing on the globe lives in India. The population of the peninsula is steadily and rapidly increasing.

9. Formerly the growth of population in India was checked by famines, wars, and plagues. The British Government has done much to provide against famine. Food has been brought by railways within reach of people likely to suffer from failing crops, the land has been made more productive by improved agriculture, and tanks and canals have been largely constructed to irrigate the fields. British rule has given the blessings of peace to India, and the progress of science has rendered the plagues less destructive than they were formerly.

10. Military history in India since the Mutiny is mainly concerned with frontier wars, undertaken for the purpose of punishing the raids of native tribes of hillmen. In 1888 an expedition was sent against the Black Mountain tribes of Bhutan. In 1891 the murder of the British Resident at Manipur was avenged ; and a few years later a force was sent to Chitral, where a British fort had been attacked. In 1897 the Afridis, and other hill tribes round the Khaibar Pass, refused to acknowledge British authority. A long and fierce struggle followed, in the course of which British courage and endurance were severely tested. The extraordinary gallantry of the Gordon Highlanders in storming the Dargai ridge was the most memorable event of the war. Ultimately the tribes submitted.

11. In 1885 Thebaw, King of Burma, forced a war upon us, and as a result Upper Burma was annexed and Thebaw deposed and exiled. Afghanistan was unmolested from 1843 to 1878. In the latter year Russian influence became so strong in the Afghan capital that Lord Beaconsfield demanded the presence of a British Resident there. This was refused, and war was declared. The invasion was made by three armies, and was completely successful. The Ameer, Shere Ali, fled ; his son, Yakoob Khan, was set up in his place ; and a British Resident was received.

12. Then the events of 1841 repeated themselves. A rebellion broke out ; the Resident and his escort were murdered ; and British troops once more invaded Afghanistan (October 1879). Kabul was occupied by General (afterwards Lord) Roberts ; but during the civil war which broke out between two pretenders, Abdurrahman and Ayooob



Khan, he was besieged in his entrenchments. Finally he drove off his assailants, but our hold upon the country was so insecure that the Government decided to withdraw the British troops. Before the withdrawal could take place, Ayoob Khan had cut to pieces a British force at the battle of Maiwand, and was besieging Kandahar.

13. General Roberts at once set out from Kabul, reached Kandahar by forced marches over a difficult country, routed Ayoob's army, and relieved the garrison. This brilliant feat of arms restored our prestige, but led to no other result. Abdurrahman was recognized as Ameer, and the British forces then withdrew, leaving the new Ameer to establish his power as best he could (1880). Kandahar was given up to him in the next year.

14. The only recent event in the history of India upon which we need dwell is the formation of a North-West Frontier Province, which enables us more readily to hold the wild hill tribes in check. British influence has now been pushed beyond that great barrier of mountains on the north-west which formerly was considered our most formidable line of defence. Baluchistan, to the south of Afghanistan, has become British; the recesses of the mysterious land of Tibet have been invaded by a British expedition. Burma became partly British in 1852, and wholly so thirty-three years later. The defeat of Russia by Japan, and the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, put an end to the old dread of Russian invasion, and, as far as external foes are concerned, India may be said to be more secure now than she has ever been before.

### 43. EGYPT.

1. To-day we will visit the remarkable canal which unites the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, and brings India within three weeks' journey of London. The Suez Canal is now the main channel of communication between Europe and the East. It is over one hundred miles long, thirty-six feet deep, and from two hundred to three hundred and fifty feet wide. Ships thread it in about sixteen hours, and thus save the long ocean journey round the Cape of Good Hope. There was a canal through the isthmus in ancient Egyptian times ; the modern canal, however, dates from 1869. It belongs to no one nation, though Britain possesses nearly half of the shares. The great Powers have decided that even in time of war all vessels, whether armed or not, shall freely pass through the canal, and that in no circumstances shall it be blockaded.

2. In 1869, when the Suez Canal was opened, the ruler of Egypt was Ismail Pasha, a very intelligent man, with large ideas. He set about improving his country in various ways, and extending its boundaries southward to the Sudan, where he attempted to stamp out the slave trade. Egypt owes much of her material progress to Ismail, who built railways, improved the irrigation, and founded schools and industries. All this, however, he did at ruinous cost to his people. Money was necessary to carry out his plans, and this he obtained from foreigners, chiefly from the British and the French. By 1875 the public debt was ninety-one millions, and was increasing every month. In order to obtain money, Ismail sold to Lord Beaconsfield the one

hundred and seventy-seven thousand shares which he held in the Suez Canal for £4,000,000. In this way Britain became half-owner of the canal, and acquired an important stake in the country.

3. Up to the end of 1875 the interest on the public debt was punctually paid by the Egyptian Government. Then, however, the Khedive found that the State was bankrupt, and could no longer pay its way. The British Government sent an official to report on the state of the Egyptian finances, and the upshot was that France and Britain, in the interests of the bondholders, took over the management of the debt. Ismail soon found that he was no longer master in his own house, and in 1879, during a national revolt, he dismissed his British and French advisers.

4. This led to a naval demonstration by the Powers; Ismail was deposed, and succeeded by his son, Mohammed Tewfik. The new Khedive was entirely in the hands of his foreign advisers, and there was great dissatisfaction amongst the people. In 1882 an Egyptian officer, named Arabi Pasha, led a national movement against the control of the foreigners. His cry was, "Egypt for the Egyptians." The forts of Alexandria were strengthened, big guns were mounted, and in June a native rabble invaded the European quarter, plundered the shops, and slew many foreigners.

5. Meanwhile a fleet of British and French ships of war had entered the harbour of Alexandria. The British admiral gave notice that unless the forts of Alexandria were given up at a specified time he would bombard the place. The French refused to take part in the war which was on the eve of commencing, and the greater part of their



fleet sailed out of the harbour. At 7 a.m. on the eleventh of July the first shot was fired. The Egyptian forts and batteries replied, but by 5.30 their guns were completely silenced. Next day the white flag was hoisted and the forts were surrendered ; but meanwhile Arabi and his army had retreated. Sailors and marines were landed, but before they could take possession of the city it was given over to massacre and destruction. More than two thousand Europeans were put to death.

6. Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived with an army in August, and a decisive battle was fought on the thirteenth of September at Tel-el-Kebir. Arabi fled at the first shot, but the rank and file of the Egyptians fought with great courage. In two hours all was over, and two thousand Egyptians lay dead in their trenches. On the fifteenth of the month Wolseley entered Cairo, and Arabi's rebellion was completely crushed.

7. Victory had been won without either the assistance of Turkey or of France, our partner in the "Dual Control." The latter Power now prepared to resume her part of the control ; but Britain, having borne the whole burden and cost of the war, was no longer ready to share with any other Power the position which her success had won. From 1882 till 1914 Egypt was practically governed by the British, though until 1904 the French retained certain rights with regard to money affairs. In 1914, after the entry of Turkey into the Great War, Egypt was proclaimed a British Protectorate, but in 1922 it became an independent sovereign State.

8. Before closing this lesson, we must refer to the



THE BATTLE OF TEL-EL-KEBIR.

(From the picture by A. De Neuville. By permission of the Fine Art Society, owners of the copyright.)

conquest of the upper regions of the Nile, known as the Sudan. You will remember that Ismail attempted to extend Egyptian influence southwards, and to stamp out the slave trade, which until lately was the curse of this region. In carrying out this work he appealed to Britain, and Sir Samuel Baker went up the Nile with an expedition, which did good work, but did not by any means put an end to the odious slave traffic, which after his return was carried on with even more vigour than before. In 1873 the Khedive made General Gordon Governor of the Equatorial Provinces of Central Africa—that is to say, of the region of the Upper Nile of which Khartum is the capital. Gordon, though much hampered in his work, managed to scatter the slave merchants and destroy their trade. In 1880, being thwarted by the Governor-General of the Sudan, he resigned.

9. During Arabi's rebellion troubles broke out in the Sudan, which passed into the hands of the Arab leader known as the Mahdi, or "Prophet." This Mahdi, as his followers called him, roused the Dervishes to revolt against the Egyptian officials. In November 1883 he defeated and entirely destroyed a mixed force of British and Egyptian troops under Hicks Pasha, and the British Government then advised the Khedive of Egypt to abandon the Sudan, after first withdrawing the garrisons to a place of safety.

10. This work of withdrawal was entrusted to Gordon, who, on January 18, 1884, set out for the Sudan, for the purpose of bringing away the garrisons of Khartum and other places. On February 18 he reached Khartum, and by March he had sent two thousand five hundred men down the Nile. He was then being gradually hemmed





The Suez Canal - British Troopship passing through.

in by the Mahdi and his fanatical forces. On April 16 the telegraph wires were cut, and thenceforward Gordon was shut out from all communication with the outer world.

11. At length, on the first of September, Sir Garnet Wolseley left England to try to relieve him. Everybody felt that if Gordon was to be relieved, Wolseley was the man to do it. Once started, everything possible was done to hasten on the expedition ; but it was then too late. A large force crossed the desert to Metemmeh, where it arrived on January 20, 1885, under the command of Sir C. Wilson. Letters were there received from Gordon, dated the fourteenth of December, in which he said that he expected a disaster in ten days. On the same day he wrote to his sister, "I am quite happy, thank God ! and, like Lawrence, I have tried to do my duty." On January 26, after a siege of three hundred and seven days, Khartum was betrayed into the hands of the Mahdi, and the brave Gordon was murdered.

12. The policy of crushing the Mahdi was abandoned for the time, and the British troops withdrew to Wady Halfa, which became the southern frontier of Egypt. In 1896, after the Sudan had been sealed up, as it were, for nearly fifteen years, its reconquest was begun. In 1897, after some severe fighting with the Dervishes, Sir Herbert (afterwards Lord) Kitchener, at the head of British and Egyptian troops, pushed on to Berber. Early in 1898 the Mahdi's army was completely defeated at the battle of the Atbara ; and a few months later, at Omdurman, the Dervish power in the Sudan was finally shattered by the defeat of the Khalifa, the Mahdi's successor.



**HOW GORDON DIED.**

*(From the picture by G. W. Joy. By permission of Messrs. Frost and Reid, Bristol and London, publishers of the large etching.)*



#### 44. THE BOER WAR.

1. The Boer War of 1899-1902 is not ancient history. Perhaps you know men who fought in it, and have heard from their lips an account of the battles in which they took part. Before, however, we proceed to describe the war, we must get some idea of the history of South Africa since the beginning of the nineteenth century.

2. In 1806, during the Napoleonic wars, a British force was sent to the Cape to expel, not the Dutch colonists, but the Dutch governor and soldiers. The Cape became a British possession, but the Dutch colonists remained, and their descendants are the Boers, or Dutch farmers, who are found throughout South Africa to-day. The Boers disliked being handed over to Britain, and even in these early days began to "trek" away from the settled parts. In 1837 they crossed the Orange River and formed the settlements now known as Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. Soon after its settlement Natal became a British possession, but in time the independence of the other colonies was recognized.

3. The development of these states was greatly hindered by the hostility of the natives, and for this the harshness of the Boers was largely to blame. The Orange Free State was better off than the Transvaal in this respect, as its trouble with the Basutos had been settled by British intervention before it became independent. In 1877 the Transvaal was badly in debt, and was threatened by the hordes of the great Zulu chief Cetewayo. The Boers in their need turned to Britain for help, and the

Transvaal was annexed in that year. During the war which followed Cetewayo defeated a combined force of British soldiers and Boers at Isandlwana, and this defeat left Natal exposed to a Zulu invasion. The magnificent defence of Rorke's Drift, however, averted what might have been a great disaster, and the victory of Ulundi practically put an end to the war.

4. As soon as the debt of the Transvaal had been paid, and the power of the Zulus had been broken, the Boers began to demand independence, and in December 1880 a general rising took place. War had scarcely broken out before disaster began to overtake the British. A party of over two hundred soldiers were forced to surrender at Bronker's Spruit. To drive the Boers away from Laing's Nek, General Colley, the British commander, with six hundred men, ascended Majuba Hill, which overlooked the Boer camp. The Boers, realizing their danger, climbed the hill and inflicted a severe defeat on the British, in the course of which General Colley was killed. After this disaster Sir Evelyn Wood took command of the British forces; but in the meantime the British Government had resolved not to continue the war, and the Transvaal regained her independence under the suzerainty of the British Crown.

5. After 1881 the republic rapidly developed, chiefly owing to the discovery of gold, which induced many new settlers to enter the state in pursuit of wealth. These "Uitlanders," or foreigners, as the Boers called them, were not able to work harmoniously with the old Dutch settlers, who wished to keep all the political power in their own hands, although the new-comers bore the greater burden of

the taxation. In 1895 some of the leading Uitlanders formed a conspiracy to overthrow the Boer Government and bring the Transvaal once more under British authority. In order to assist the movement Dr. Jameson, the administrator of Rhodesia, crossed the Transvaal border with an armed force, but was forced to surrender. This invasion caused much bitterness of feeling in the Transvaal, and, as events proved, was the forerunner of a long and desperate war.

6. Early in 1899 the Uitlanders petitioned Queen Victoria for redress of their grievances, and Sir Alfred (now Lord) Milner and Mr. Kruger, President of the Transvaal Republic, met at Bloemfontein to discuss the question. They failed to agree, and a lengthy and unsatisfactory correspondence began between the two Governments, while meantime armed Boers were gathering on the frontiers of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. British troops were hurried to Natal, and in October the Colonial Office received an ultimatum from the Boers demanding the withdrawal of these, and an undertaking that no further troops should be landed in South Africa. Such terms, of course, could not be discussed, and war was declared.

7. The Boers were only waiting the word to invade Natal, and the early battles of the war were fought in the northern angle of that colony. The British troops, after checking the enemy at the battles of Talana and Elands-laagte, were forced to retire on Ladysmith, where they were hemmed in. At the same time Mafeking and Kimberley were invested, and the towns in the north of Cape Colony also were threatened. The first instalments of the British army now began to arrive, under the command of



Sir Redvers Buller, and an attempt was made to relieve the beleaguered places, but without success.

8. The column under Lord Methuen, which attempted the relief of Kimberley and Mafeking, successfully fought the battles of Belmont, Graspan, and Modder River, but was defeated at Magersfontein, where the Highland Brigade suffered most severely, amongst the killed being the gallant General Wauchope. After this battle Lord Methuen retired to the Modder River to await reinforcements. Meanwhile General Gatacre had been led into a trap at Stormberg, and General Buller was finding the relief of Ladysmith an impossible task. His attacks on the Boer position on the Tugela were repulsed with great loss, and although Spion Kop was captured our troops could not hold the position.

9. A change in the chief command of the British forces now took place, and the new commander-in-chief, Lord Roberts, with Lord Kitchener as chief of staff, speedily changed the aspect of affairs. It must be remembered, though, that the troops had meantime been augmented by contingents from home and from our colonies. General (afterwards Field-Marshal Lord) French, with his cavalry, relieved Kimberley, and General Cronje, the victor of Magersfontein, was forced to surrender at Paardeberg on the anniversary of Majuba. On the same day General Buller succeeded in capturing Pieter's Hill, and Ladysmith was relieved a few days later. Mafeking, after an eight months' siege, was relieved in May, and in July five thousand Boers surrendered at Naauwpoort. On September 1 Lord Roberts issued a proclamation formally



RORKE'S DRIFT.

annexing the Transvaal, the Orange Free State having previously been added to the British Empire under the name of the Orange River Colony.

10. The Boer power was now practically broken, but for nearly two years they carried on an irritating guerilla warfare, necessitating on the part of our troops marches, counter-marches, and small fights innumerable. Peace was declared in 1902, and in 1904 Crown Colony government was introduced. In 1906 the Transvaal was granted self-government, and in 1907 General Botha, formerly the Boer commander-in-chief, attended the Colonial Conference in London as its first Prime Minister. In 1907 the Orange River Colony also received self-government.

11. Queen Victoria died in January 1901, after a reign of more than sixty-three years—the longest reign in British history. Her eldest son, long and affectionately known to the British people as the Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne with the title of Edward the Seventh. His brief reign was remarkable not only for his great personal popularity, but for his very general and sincere desire to advance the cause of peace throughout the world. The famous *entente cordiale* with France was made in 1904, and various long-standing differences were amicably settled. The self-government which was granted to the Transvaal in 1906 blossomed four years later into a union of the South African states. King Edward's death, in May 1910, was the occasion of great national mourning, and of remarkable demonstrations of respectful affection for the dead sovereign. His eldest surviving son succeeded to the throne as George the Fifth, and was crowned in June 1911.



## 45. THE WORLD WAR.

1. During our troubles in South Africa the Kaiser, Wilhelm II. of Germany, sent to the President of the South African Republic a telegram which plainly showed that he was a false friend to Great Britain. Ever since he succeeded his peace-loving father as German Emperor he had been a constant source of disquiet and irritation to other nations. His army, both in numbers and efficiency, was unequalled, and during his reign his empire had developed into a great industrial state—the rival of Great Britain in all the markets of the world.

2. When the Boer War was in its doubtful early stages he and his advisers believed that the British would be beaten, and that their empire would go to pieces. It was openly said by many Germans that if they had then possessed a powerful navy they would have been able to capture some of the British colonies. The Kaiser seized the opportunity to press his Parliament for a large grant to be devoted to the building of a navy so strong that “the next greatest naval power”—that is, Great Britain—would not be able to attack it without grave risk. The money was granted, and a navy costing more than £300,000,000 was built.

3. Why, we may ask, did Germany cast covetous eyes on the British Empire? Conscious of her power, she felt that she was marked out to be the head of a world state, yet when she attempted to extend her dominion she found many obstacles in her way. In the first place, she has a short and shallow sea-coast and but few good harbours on the North Sea, while the Baltic Sea is frozen for months

every year. She needed more and better outlets to the open ocean, yet it was clear that she could only secure them by conquest.

4. Germany was surrounded by the old-established nations—by France on the west, Russia on the east, Austria-Hungary on the south. Between her and the North Sea lay Holland and Belgium, two small countries, the soil of which is composed of the silt brought down by the Rhine. Belgium was forbidden to her by a treaty to which she herself was a party. Holland she dared not attack without bringing France, Russia, and Britain into armed conflict with her. She therefore could not expand in Europe without a war of conquest.

5. Nor was her extension easy overseas. When she was ready to make herself a world Power all the best parts of the earth had already been taken up by other nations. She found that as an empire she had been born too late. She managed to found a few colonies in Africa; but, with the exception of Togoland and Kamerun, they were unfruitful and thankless regions. In Asia she bullied China into yielding her some territory; but when she attempted to acquire colonies elsewhere she found herself in conflict with one or other of the Great Powers. Then, too, she had the mortification of seeing hundreds of thousands of her people settle in America or in the colonies of other nations and become lost to her. All this was very galling to the German rulers, and the Prussian military men never neglected an opportunity of urging war as a means of giving Germany what they thought to be her rightful place in the world.

6. Envy and hatred of Great Britain were fostered in every possible way. A great German historian had taught his fellow-countrymen that Britain was the enemy. She was, he said, a "robber state"; she had become mistress of nearly a quarter of the world by making cat's paws of other races; and she had no real right to all this territory. She could not even rule it properly, according to German ideas. If ever she had been strong and warlike, that time had long since gone by. Though she appeared to be powerful she was in fact very weak, and quite unable to hold her empire if it should be attacked by a really strong Power such as Germany.

7. So constantly was this doctrine taught that the Germans came to believe it, and in every military mess the toast of "The Day" was drunk—that is, the day on which Germany would throw down the gage of battle to Britain. The Germans confidently believed that when the day arrived they would make an end of Britain and enter into her heritage. Their philosophers had made them believe that there was nothing wrong in an attempt to seize the territory of other nations. Might, they were told, was right; the spoils of the world were to the strongest, and no nation had any right to territory which it could not defend by force of arms.

8. Bismarck, the great German Chancellor, had made the German Empire by means of three wars; the military party of Germany aimed at the Empire of the World by means of two wars. The neighbours of Germany—Russia and France—were to be overcome in the first war; the second war was to see the downfall of Britain.



9. We know how Germany prepared for the first war. Between 1906 and the middle of 1914 she four times increased her army, and in 1913 raised from her people a war levy of £50,000,000. Her object in increasing the army and in raising this money was openly stated—to fortify and extend German power throughout the whole world. In order to do this the German people were to be taught that Germany must go to war because her foes were threatening her, and that such a war would make their burdens lighter and give them a future of peace and abounding prosperity. She was unpopular because of her greatness, but that mattered nothing, for she would conquer her ill-wishers.

10. When the minds of the Germans were thus prepared, discontent was to be stirred up amongst the native peoples in French and British possessions, as well as in Russia, so that these countries would be full of revolt when war was declared. As for the small states, such as Belgium and Holland, they must be prepared to follow Germany or be conquered. If Belgium should object to the passage of a German army in order that a rapid blow could be struck at France, she must be invaded in spite of the treaty which guaranteed her neutrality. All this was arranged as far back as May 1913.

11. On the eve of the Great War the continental Powers of Europe were allied in two opposing camps. By what was known as the Triple Alliance, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy had bound themselves to stand by each other in war if any one of them were attacked. Italy, however, was much aggrieved when Austria, contrary to the terms of the Triple Alliance, annexed the Slav states of

Bosnia and Herzegovina in the year 1908, and it was clear that she would probably withdraw from the combination when the Central Powers declared war. The effective part of the Triple Alliance, therefore, consisted of Germany and Austria-Hungary. In the opposite camp were France and Russia, who had formed a firm alliance and were prepared to stand or fall together. A friendship had also grown up between Britain and France, and though there was no formal alliance between them, certain arrangements had been made which encouraged the French to believe that if they were wantonly attacked they would not appeal for British assistance in vain.

12. The incident which precipitated the Great War occurred in June 1914, when the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was murdered while driving through the streets of Serajevo, the Bosnian capital. The Austrians were naturally indignant, and they fastened the blame on the Serbian Government, which was accused of fomenting conspiracies in order to bring out a southern Slav state which should include Bosnia and Herzegovina. After more than a month's delay Austria presented the Serbian Government with a series of very harsh demands, some of them of such a character that no self-respecting state could possibly accept them and still retain its independence. Serbia was ready to comply with most of these demands, and those which she could not accept she was prepared to discuss.

13. Austria, however, was bent on war. Immediately she received Serbia's reply she rejected it, and four days later her artillery was bombarding Belgrade. Russia, who

has always been the friend of Serbia, now began to call together her southern troops for the purpose of preventing Austria from overrunning Serbia. It was now clear that Europe was trembling on the verge of a war which would be certain to involve all the Great Powers. Should Austria not draw back, and Russia take the field, France, by the terms of her alliance with Russia, would be forced to fight too.

14. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, strove with might and main to avert war. On July 31 he succeeded in inducing Austria to discuss the questions at issue with Russia. There was now a gleam of hope in the threatening sky, but at this promising moment Germany took a step which made war inevitable. She sent an impudent message to the Tsar ordering him to cease mobilizing his troops within twelve hours on pain of war. Russia sent no answer to this message, and at midnight on August 1 Germany declared war on Russia. This meant war with France as well.

15. We now know that all along Germany had stood behind Austria, egging her on to fight, promising to assist her with the greatest and most efficient army in the world, and assuring her of a victory that would re-establish her as a great Power. There is no shadow of doubt that Germany was the evil genius that brought about the war. She believed that the moment was ripe for making herself mistress of Europe—the first step towards that world dominion which she had so long coveted, and for which she had so long prepared.

16. Germany had now to fight Russia and France—that



is, she had to wage war on two fronts—in the east against Russia, in the west against France. She knew that Russia could not mobilize quickly, and her plan was to crush France by a sudden overwhelming blow. When France was helpless she would be able to crush Russia at her leisure.

17. It was of the utmost importance that France should be attacked immediately. The easiest and quickest road into that country lay through Belgium. Despite the protests of Belgium, which Germany had sworn to maintain inviolate, she now marched her armies into that land. To gain a military advantage she had broken her solemnly plighted word. Never did a civilized nation commit a greater crime, and it was this crime which in the end brought about her ruin.

18. We British were bound in honour to stand by Belgium, whom we had sworn to protect against invasion, and we were also obliged to help France. Common prudence would not let us remain supine while the Germans overthrew the French and established themselves on the shores of the English Channel. Had we stood by with folded arms we should have been conniving at our own undoing. When once the sceptre of the Continent passed to Germany her arms would be turned against Great Britain.

19. We therefore told the Germans plainly that if they invaded Belgium we should intervene in the conflict. They had already done so, and would not draw back ; so at 11 p.m. on August 4, 1914, we declared war on Germany. Thus Armageddon began.

20. Germany had long been preparing for the war, and

her troops were ready to march at a moment's notice. The Allies, on the other hand, were more or less unprepared, and had to develop their resources as the struggle proceeded. The small Belgian army made a gallant stand, and by its dogged courage delayed the German deployment for a fortnight. The first great battle was fought in the last week of August, and resulted in a French defeat, which entailed upon the British Expeditionary Force to their left a long and costly retreat. The Allied line was not knitted up anew until the river Marne had been passed.

21. On September 6 the Allies began to advance once more. Taking advantage of a mistake on the part of the German general, they pushed forward with such determination that the enemy was forced to retire to the heights of the Aisne. From this strong position he could not be dislodged by frontal attacks. Attempts to outflank his position brought about what was called "the race to the sea." Before the close of the year friend and foe were facing each other in trench lines extending from the North Sea to the borders of Switzerland. The Germans made frenzied efforts to break out and reach the Channel ports, but in vain.

22. In effect Germany lost the war when she retreated to the heights of the Aisne and "dug in." The long trench war which followed enabled the Allies to train millions of men and manufacture supplies of artillery and munitions. Italy joined their side in May 1915, and the United States of America in April 1917. Right down to the spring of 1918 the war in the West swayed to and fro, with no great gains for either side, but with ever-growing confidence on the part of the Allies. In March 1918 the Germans



Piping the Camerons into a French Village.



suddenly breached the southern portion of the British line, and forced it to make a long and costly retreat, hoping to separate the Western Allies before the main American armies could take the field. In July the enemy again pushed towards the Marne, but in the course of his advance placed himself in such a position that the French and Americans were able to strike at his flanks and force him to withdraw.

23. This was the signal for the Allies to strike a succession of heavy blows which the Germans could not meet. Their people at home were war-weary, and there was much disaffection amongst the fighting men. Back they were swept, and at the eleventh hour of the eleventh day of the eleventh month of 1918 they were forced to beg for an armistice. It was granted, and Armageddon came to a sudden end.

24. War was not only waged on the Western front and at sea, but in Russia, where, in the course of the struggle, revolution broke out, and her armies fell to pieces, leaving the country a prey to Germany. There was heavy fighting also in Rumania, in the Balkans, and in Italy, as well as in the Gallipoli peninsula, Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and in the east, west, and south-west of Africa. Sixteen great nations were involved in the awful struggle, and in all some eight millions of men were killed, and many millions more maimed for life. The cost of the war brought even the victors to the verge of ruin, and the misery and waste of the long struggle bred such loathing in the hearts of suffering peoples that at the Peace Conference a determined effort was made to bring about a League of Nations which should eradicate the great curse of war from the life of civilized mankind.

# Poetry for Recitation.

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## 1. THE BATTLE OF THE BALTIC.

*[In 1800 Napoleon became First Consul of France for life. He was very anxious to form a coalition of the northern powers of Europe, so as to humble Britain. Denmark, which was French at heart, then possessed a fine fleet. The destruction of this at Copenhagen (1801) rendered Napoleon's project of no avail. Although only second in command to Admiral Parker, Nelson was the real hero of the battle.]*

### 1. Of Nelson and the North

Sing the glorious day's renown,  
When to battle fierce came forth  
All the might of Denmark's crown,  
And her arms along the deep proudly shone;  
By each gun the lighted brand  
In a bold determined hand,  
And the Prince of all the land  
Led them on.

### 2. Like leviathans afloat,

Lay their bulwarks on the brine,  
While the sign of battle flew  
On the lofty British line.  
It was ten of April morn by the chime  
As they drifted on their path  
There was silence deep as death,  
And the boldest held his breath  
For a time.

3. But the might of England flushed  
To anticipate the scene,  
And her van the fleeter rushed  
O'er the deadly space between.  
“Hearts of oak!” our captains cried; when  
each gun,  
From its adamant lips,  
Spread a death-shade round the ships,  
Like the hurricane eclipse  
Of the sun.
4. Again! again! again!  
And the havoc did not slack,  
Till a feeble cheer the Dane  
To our cheering sent us back.  
Their shots along the deep slowly boom—  
Then ceased—and all is wail,  
As they strike the shattered sail;  
Or, in conflagration pale,  
Light the gloom.
5. Now joy, Old England, raise,  
For the tidings of thy might,  
By the festal cities' blaze,  
Whilst the wine-cup shines in light:  
And yet, amidst that joy and uproar,  
Let us think of them that sleep,  
Full many a fathom deep,  
By thy wild and stormy steep,  
Elsinore.



## 2. WATERLOO, 1815.

1. There was a sound of revelry by night,  
And Belgium's capital had gathered then  
Her Beauty and her Chivalry; and bright  
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;  
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when  
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,  
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,  
And all went merry as a marriage bell:  
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!
2. Did ye not hear it?—No; 'twas but the wind,  
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street:  
On with the dance! let joy be unconfined;  
No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure meet  
To chase the glowing Hours with flying feet.  
But hark!—that heavy sound breaks in once more,  
As if the clouds its echo would repeat;  
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!  
Arm! arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar!
3. Within a windowed niche of that high hall  
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did hear  
That sound the first amidst the festival,  
And caught its tone with Death's prophetic ear.  
And when they smiled because he deemed it near,  
His heart more truly knew that peal too well  
Which stretched his father on a bloody bier,  
And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell:  
He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell.

4. Ah ! then and there was hurrying to and fro,  
And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,  
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago  
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness ;  
And there were sudden partings, such as press  
The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs  
Which ne'er might be repeated : who would guess  
If ever more should meet those mutual eyes,  
Since upon night so sweet such awful morn could rise ?
5. And there was mounting in hot haste ; the steed,  
The mustering squadron, and the clattering car,  
Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,  
And swiftly forming in the ranks of war.  
And the deep thunder peal on peal afar ;  
And near, the beat of the alarming drum  
Roused up the soldier ere the morning star ;  
While thronged the citizens with terror dumb,  
Or whispering, with white lips—"The foe ! They  
come !—they come !"
6. And wild and high the "Camerons' gathering" rose !  
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills  
Have heard—and heard, too, have her Saxon foes.  
How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills  
Savage and shrill ! But with the breath which fills  
Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers  
With the fierce native daring which instils  
The stirring memory of a thousand years ;  
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears !

7. And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves,  
 Dewy with Nature's tear-drops, as they pass,  
 Grieving, if aught inanimate e'er grieves,  
 Over the unreturning brave,—alas !  
 Ere evening to be trodden like the grass  
 Which now beneath them, but above shall grow  
 In its next verdure, when this fiery mass  
 Of living valour, rolling on the foe,  
 And burning with high hope, shall moulder cold and low.
8. Last noon beheld them full of lusty life,  
 Last eve in Beauty's circle proudly gay ;  
 The midnight brought the signal-sound of strife,  
 The morn the marshalling in arms,—the day  
 Battle's magnificently stern array !  
 The thunder-clouds close o'er it, which when rent,  
 The earth is covered thick with other clay,  
 Which her own clay shall cover, heaped and pent,  
 Rider and horse—friend, foe—in one red burial blent !

LORD BYRON.

(*Childe Harold*, Canto iii., Stanzas 21–28.)

### 3. WELLINGTON AND NELSON, 1852.

[*This poem is supposed to be in answer to a question put by the shade of Nelson, who lies buried in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral, when the funeral procession of Wellington was seen approaching.*]

Who is he that cometh, like an honoured guest,  
 With banner and with music, with soldier and with  
 priest,  
 With a nation weeping, and breaking on my rest ?



Mighty seaman, this is he  
Was great by land as thou by sea.  
Thine island loves thee well, thou famous man,  
The greatest sailor since our world began.  
Now, to the roll of muffled drums,  
To thee the greatest soldier comes ;  
For this is he  
Was great by land as thou by sea.  
His foes were thine ; he kept us free ;  
O give him welcome, this is he  
Worthy of our gorgeous rites,  
And worthy to be laid by thee ;  
For this is England's greatest son,  
He that gained a hundred fights,  
Nor ever lost an English gun :  
This is he that far away  
Against the myriads of Assaye  
Clashed with his fiery few and won  
And underneath another sun,  
Warring on a later day,  
Round affrighted Lisbon drew  
The treble works, the vast designs  
Of his laboured rampart lines,  
Where he greatly stood at bay ;  
Whence he issued forth anew  
And ever great and greater grew.  
Beating from the wasted vines  
Back to France her banded swarms.  
Back to France with countless blows,  
Till o'er the hills her eagles flew

Beyond the Pyrenean pines,  
Followed up in valley and glen  
With blare of bugle, clamour of men.  
Roar of cannon and clash of arms,  
And England pouring on her foes ;---  
Such a war had such a close.  
Again their ravening eagle rose  
In anger, wheeled on Europe-shadowing wings,  
And barking for the thrones of kings ;  
Till one that sought but Duty's iron crown  
On that loud Sabbath shook the spoiler down—  
A day of onsets of despair !  
Dashed on every rocky square  
Their surging charges foamed themselves away ;  
Last, the Prussian trumpet blew ;  
Through the long-tormented air  
Heaven flashed a sudden jubilant ray,  
And down we swept and charged and overthrew.  
So great a soldier taught us there  
What long-enduring hearts could do  
In that world-earthquake, Waterloo !  
Mighty seaman, tender and true,  
And pure as he from taint of craven guile,  
O saviour of the silver-coasted isle,  
O shaker of the Baltic and the Nile,  
If aught of things that here befall  
Touch a spirit among things divine,  
If love of country move thee there at all,  
Be glad, because his bones are laid by thine !  
And through the centuries let a people's voice

In full acclaim,  
 A people's voice,  
 The proof and echo of all human fame,  
 A people's voice, when they rejoice  
 At civic revel and pomp and game,  
 Attest their great commander's claim  
 With honour, honour, honour, honour to him,  
 Eternal honour to his name.

LORD TENNYSON.

#### 4. SANTA FILOMENA.

*[The general state of unpreparedness with which Britain entered into the Crimean War was shown nowhere more clearly than in the want of due preparation in the hospitals for the wounded. The confusion and the almost hopeless despair which reigned in the great hospital at Scutari disappeared when Miss Florence Nightingale and a band of nurses went out to aid the over-worked staff. In November 1907, Florence Nightingale was made a member of the Order of Merit, the first woman to obtain this high distinction.]*

1. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,  
 Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,  
 Our hearts, in glad surprise,  
 To higher levels rise.
2. The tidal wave of deeper souls  
 Into our inmost being rolls,  
 And lifts us unawares  
 Out of all meaner cares.
3. Honour to those whose words or deeds  
 Thus help us in our daily needs,  
 And by their overflow  
 Raise us from what is low !



4. Thus thought I as by night I read  
Of the great army of the dead—  
The trenches cold and damp,  
The starved and frozen camp—
5. The wounded from the battle-plain,  
In dreary hospitals of pain—  
The cheerless corridors,  
The cold and stony floors.
6. Lo ! in that house of misery  
A lady with a lamp I see  
Pass through the glimmering gloom,  
And flit from room to room.
7. And slow, as in a dream of bliss,  
The speechless sufferer turns to kiss  
Her shadow as it falls  
Upon the darkening walls.
8. As if a door in heaven should be  
Opened and then closed suddenly,  
The vision came and went,  
The light shone and was spent.
9. On England's annals, through the long  
Hereafter of her speech and song,  
That light its rays shall cast  
From portals of the past.

10. A Lady with a Lamp shall stand  
In the great history of the land,  
A noble type of good,  
Heroic womanhood.
11. Nor even shall be wanting here  
The palm, the lily, and the spear—  
The symbols that of yore  
Saint Filomena bore.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

## SUMMARY OF BRITISH HISTORY, WITH DATES.

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| <p>1603. Accession of James the First. (Lesson 1, par. 10.)</p> <p>1604. Hampton Court Conference. (Lesson 2, par. 5.)</p> <p>1605. Gunpowder Plot. (Lesson 5, par. 5.)</p> <p>1608. Birth of Milton.</p> <p>1610. Dissolution of James's first Parliament. (Lesson 4, par. 1.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Addled Parliament dissolved. (Lesson 4, par. 2.)</p> <p>1616. Shakespeare died.</p> <p>1618. Thirty Years' War began. (Lesson 4, par. 3.)</p> <p>1620. The Pilgrim Fathers arrived in America. (Lesson 2, par. 11.)</p> <p>1621. James tore out the famous protest from the journals of the House of Commons. (Lesson 4, par. 7.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Bacon dismissed from office.</p> <p>1625. James died and Charles the First succeeded.</p> <p>1628. Bunyan born.</p> <p>1631. Strafford's "thorough" system. (Lesson 5, par. 8.)</p> <p>1634. Ship-money question. (Lesson 5, par. 11.)</p> <p>1637. The Prayer Book in Scotland. (Lesson 5, par. 12.)</p> <p>1638. The National Covenant. (Lesson 5, par. 12.)</p> <p>1640. First meeting of Long Parliament. (Lesson 5, par. 14.)</p> <p>1641. Execution of Strafford. (Lesson 5, par. 6.)</p> <p>1642. Attempted arrest of the five members. (Lesson 6, par. 3.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">King's standard raised at Nottingham. (Lesson 6, par. 4.)</p> <p>1644. Marston Moor.</p> <p>1645. Execution of Laud. (Lesson 5, par. 14.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Battle of Naseby. (Lesson 6, par. 5.)</p> <p>1646. Charles's surrender to the Scots.</p> <p>1648. Pride's Purge. (Lesson 6, par. 10.)</p> | <p>1649. Trial and execution of Charles. (Lesson 6, pars. 11-17.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Commonwealth set up. (Lesson 7, par. 5.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Reduction of Ireland. (Lesson 7, pars. 8-12.)</p> <p>1650. Battle of Dunbar. (Lesson 7, pars. 13-15.)</p> <p>1651. Battle of Worcester. (Lesson 8, par. 1.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">The Navigation Act.</p> <p>1652. Dutch War began.</p> <p>1653. Expulsion of the Long Parliament. (Lesson 8, pars. 2-4.)</p> <p>1654. Peace with Holland.</p> <p>1658. Death of Cromwell. (Lesson 8, par. 8.)</p> <p>1659. Resignation of Richard Cromwell. (Lesson 8, par. 9.)</p> <p>1660. Monk summoned a Convention.</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">The Restoration. (Lesson 8, par. 10.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Charles the Second began to reign, May 20.</p> <p>1661. The Clarendon Code begun.</p> <p>1662. Bombay becomes a crown possession.</p> <p>1664. New Amsterdam captured, and called New York.</p> <p>1665. Great Plague. (Lesson 9, pars. 5-9.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">War declared against Dutch. Drawn battle off Lowestoft.</p> <p>1666. Great Fire. (Lesson 9, pars. 10-15.)</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Dutch fleet sailed up Medway.</p> <p>1667. Fall of Clarendon. (Lesson 11, pars. 1-4.)</p> <p>1670. The Secret Treaty of Dover. (Lesson 11, par. 6.)</p> <p>1672. Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence. (Lesson 11, par. 7.)</p> <p>1673. The Test Act was passed. (Lesson 11, par. 8.)</p> <p>1674. Peace was made with Holland. (Lesson 11, par. 9.)</p> <p>1677. William of Orange married</p> |
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1677. Mary, eldest daughter of the Duke of York. (Lesson 11, par. 9.)
1678. The pretended Popish plot of Titus Oates. (Lesson 11, par. 10.)
1679. The Exclusion Bill. (Lesson 11, par. 11.)  
Habeas Corpus Act passed. (Lesson 14, pars. 6, 7.)
1685. Charles the Second died, and was succeeded by James the Second. (Lesson 11, par. 12.)  
Argyll's rebellion. (Lesson 12, pars. 10-14.)  
Monmouth's Rebellion. He was defeated at Sedgemoor, and afterwards captured and executed. (Lessons 12, 13.)
1687. James issued a Declaration of Indulgence. (Lesson 15, par. 1.)  
Seven bishops presented a petition against this order. They were brought to trial and acquitted. (Lessons 14, 15.)
1688. William of Orange was invited by the chief nobles and statesmen to help them against James. (Lesson 15, par. 9.)  
William landed at Torbay, and James was allowed to escape to France. (Lesson 15, par. 10.)
1689. A Convention met, declared the throne vacant, and drew up the Declaration of Right. (Lesson 15, pars. 12, 13.)  
William and Mary were made joint-sovereigns of Great Britain and Ireland. (Lesson 15, par. 14.)  
Battle of Killiecrankie. (Lesson 16, pars. 5 and 6.)  
James besieged Londonderry. (Lesson 16, pars. 9-17.)
1690. Battle of the Boyne. (Lesson 16, par. 19.)
1692. The Massacre of Glencoe. (Lesson 16, par. 7.)  
Battle of La Hogue.
1694. Bank of England founded by Paterson.
1697. Treaty of Ryswick.
1698. Darien expedition set sail from Leith. (Lesson 19, par. 5.)
1701. The Act of Settlement.  
Death of James the Second.
1702. Death of William the Third, and accession of Queen Anne. (Lesson 17, par. 10.)  
War of the Spanish Succession began. (Lesson 18, par. 1.)
1704. Capture of Gibraltar by Admiral Rooke (July 17). (Lesson 18, par. 10.)  
Battle of Blenheim (August 13). (Lesson 18, par. 7.)  
Act of Security passed in Scotland. (Lesson 19, par. 8.)
1706. Battle of Ramillies. (Lesson 18, par. 11.)
1707. Act of Union passed. (Lesson 19, par. 10.)
1708. Battle of Oudenarde. (Lesson 18, par. 12.)
1709. Battle of Malplaquet. (Lesson 18, par. 13.)
1710. Trial of Dr. Sacheverell. (Lesson 18, par. 16.)
1713. Treaty of Utrecht. (Lesson 18, par. 14.)
1714. Death of Queen Anne, and accession of George the First. (Lesson 20, pars. 2 and 5.)
1715. First Jacobite Rebellion.
1720. The South Sea Bubble burst. (Lesson 21, par. 7.)
1721. Sir Robert Walpole became Premier. (Lesson 21, par. 10.)
1725. Drapier's Letters. Robert Clive born. (Lesson 24, par. 3.)
1727. Death of George the First, and accession of George the Second.
1733. Walpole's Excise Bill introduced and dropped.
1736. The Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.
1737. Death of Queen Caroline.
1739. Walpole forced to declare war against Spain. (Lesson 21, par. 12.)  
Admiral Vernon took Porto Bello.
1742. Resignation of Walpole: made Earl of Orford. (Lesson 21, par. 13.)
1743. Battle of Dettingen. (Lesson 22, par. 6.)
1745. Death of Walpole.  
Battle of Fontenoy. (Lesson 22, par. 7.)  
Second Jacobite Rebellion. (Lesson 22, par. 8.)
1746. Battle of Falkirk and battle of Culloden. (Lesson 23, pars. 7-9.)
1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. (Lesson 23, par. 13.)
1751. Clive captured Arcot. (Lesson 25, par. 1.)
1756. The Black Hole of Calcutta. (Lesson 25, par. 9.)  
The Seven Years' War began. (Lesson 25, par. 6.)
1757. Byng shot for his failure at Minorca. (Lesson 25, par. 6.)  
Clive defeated Suraj-ud-Dowlah at

1757. battle of **Plassey** and won **Bengal**. (Lesson 25, par. 10.)  
Convention of **Klosterseven**. (Lesson 25, par. 6.)
1758. Nova Scotia taken by British. (Lesson 26, par. 8.)
1759. Capture of **Quebec** (September 13). (Lesson 27, par. 12.)
1760. British conquest of Canada completed. (Lesson 27, par. 13.)  
Death of George the Second, and accession of **George the Third**. (Lesson 28, par. 3.)
1761. Resignation of Pitt. **Bute became Premier**. (Lesson 28, par. 4.)
1763. **Peace of Paris** signed. (Lesson 28, par. 5.)
1765. The **Stamp Act** passed. (Lesson 27, par. 10.)
1766. The Stamp Act repealed. (Lesson 29, par. 2.) Pitt created Earl of Chatham. (Lesson 29, par. 3.)
1767. New duties on tea and various other articles imposed in America. (Lesson 29, par. 3.)
1768. Chatham retired. British soldiers fired on a Boston mob. (Lesson 29, par. 4.)
1773. Trial of Lord Clive.  
The **Boston Tea-Party** took place. (Lesson 29, par. 5.)
1775. Outbreak of the American War. (Lesson 29, par. 6.)  
Battle of **Bunker Hill**: won by British. (Lesson 29, par. 7.)
1776. Congress of American States published their **Declaration of Independence** (July 4). (Lesson 29, par. 8.)  
New York captured by British. (Lesson 29, par. 9.)
1777. General Burgoyne forced to surrender at **Saratoga**. (Lesson 29, par. 9.)
1778. Death of Chatham. (Lesson 29, par. 11.) French allied themselves with American colonists, and were subsequently joined by Spain. (Lesson 29, pars. 10 and 12.)
1779. **Siege of Gibraltar** began: ended in 1782.  
Cook murdered at Hawaii.
1781. Lord Cornwallis surrendered at **Yorktown**. (Lesson 29, par. 12.)
1782. **Independence of United States of America** acknowledged. (Lesson 29, par. 13.)
1783. **Pitt became Prime Minister**.
1784. Power-loom invented. (Lesson 30, par. 9.)
1787. First movement towards the abolition of slavery.
1788. Trial of Warren Hastings begun: acquitted in 1795.
1789. Outbreak of **French Revolution**. (Lesson 31, pars. 2-4.)
1793. Lewis the Sixteenth executed. (Lesson 31, par. 4.)  
War declared against France by Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia.
1795. Holland conquered by French. "The Directory" established in France. (Lesson 31, par. 5.)  
**Cape of Good Hope** first taken from Dutch.
1796. The French attempted to land in Ireland and Wales, but failed.
1797. Battle of **St. Vincent**: Jervis defeated Spaniards. (Lesson 31, par. 7.) Mutiny of seamen at Spithead and the Nore. (Lesson 31, par. 8.)  
Battle of **Camperdown**: Duncan defeated Dutch fleet. (Lesson 31, par. 8.)
1798. Irish Rebellion Battle of Vinegar Hill.  
Battle of the Nile (August 1): French fleet almost entirely destroyed by Nelson, and Napoleon penned up in the East. (Lesson 31, par. 14.)
1799. Bonaparte beaten at Acre. (Lesson 31, par. 15.)
1800. Triumph of Bonaparte at Marengo and Hohenlinden. (Lesson 31, par. 17.)
1801. **Union of Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland**.  
Pitt resigned. Addington Ministry formed. League of the Northern Powers formed against Britain. Nelson broke it up by a victory off **Copenhagen** (April 2). (Lesson 31, par. 18.)  
French army expelled from Egypt.
1802. **Treaty of Amiens**. (Lesson 31, par. 19.)
1803. War declared against the French. (Lesson 32, par. 4.)
1805. Napoleon prepared to invade England. (Lesson 32, par. 4.)  
Calder's action off **Finisterre** (July 27). (Lesson 32, par. 6.)  
Battle of **Trafalgar** (October 21). (Lesson 32, par. 7.)  
Battle of **Austerlitz** (December 2). (Lesson 32, par. 10.)

1806. Death of William Pitt (January 23).  
"Berlin Decrees" issued (November 20). (Lesson 32, par. 12.)
1807. **Treaty of Tilsit** between Napoleon and the Tsar. (Lesson 32, par. 11.)
1808. Wellesley landed at Mondego Bay (Portugal). (Lesson 33, par. 3.)  
Junot beaten by Wellesley at **Vimiera**. (Lesson 33, par. 3.)
1809. Battle of **Corunna**, and death of Moore. (Lesson 33, par. 5.)  
Wellesley invaded Spain and won battle of **Talavera**, but was forced to retreat into Portugal. (Lesson 33, par. 6.)
1810. The Prince of Wales was made Regent.  
Wellington spent the winter in the **lines of Torres Vedras**. Massena forced to retreat. (Lesson 33, par. 7.)  
Battle of **Fuentes d'Onoro**. (Lesson 33, par. 7.)  
Battle of **Albuera**. (Lesson 33, par. 7.)
1812. Wellington stormed **Ciudad Rodrigo** and **Badajoz**, and won the battle of **Salamanca**.  
Napoleon invaded Russia. (Lesson 33, par. 8.)
1813. Battle of **Vittoria**. (Lesson 33, par. 14.)  
Napoleon defeated at **Leipzig**. (Lesson 33, par. 13.)  
Wellington defeated French at **Toulouse**. (Lesson 33, par. 15.)
1814. The allies entered Paris. (Lesson 33, par. 15.)  
**First Peace of Paris** signed. Napoleon banished to Elba. (Lesson 33, par. 16.)  
Lewis the Eighteenth became King of France. (Lesson 33, par. 16.)
1815. The "Hundred Days." (Lesson 33, par. 17.)  
Battle of **Waterloo** (June 18). (Lesson 34.)
1819. Great discontent throughout the country. Political meetings were broken up.
1820. Death of George the Third, and accession of **George the Fourth**.  
British settlers arrived in Cape Colony. (Lesson 44, par. 4.)
1829. **Catholic Relief Bill** passed.
1830. George the Fourth died, and was succeeded by **William the Fourth**. (Lesson 35, par. 6.)
1830. **Liverpool and Manchester Railway** opened (September 15).
1831. The **Reform Bill** passed. (Lesson 35, par. 10.)
1833. Slavery finally abolished. (Lesson 44, par. 5.)  
The first Peel Ministry formed. (Lesson 38, par. 4.)
1835. **Municipal Reform Bill** passed.
1837. Death of William the Fourth, and accession of **Victoria**. (Lesson 36, par. 1.)
1838. The **Chartist** agitation began.  
The **Anti-Corn-Law League** formed. (Lesson 37, par. 10.)
1839. Kabul was entered by the British. (Lesson 41, par. 3.)
1840. **Penny Postage** was introduced. (Lesson 36, par. 3.)
1841. **Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister**. (Lesson 38, par. 4.)
1842. Peel reduced the duties on 750 articles, and imposed an income tax. (Lesson 38, par. 8.)  
Lord Shaftesbury's **Mine and Colliery Bill** was passed.  
The British envoy in Afghanistan was treacherously shot, and the army destroyed, all but one man (Dr. Brydon). (Lesson 41, par. 4.)  
Natal proclaimed a British colony. (Lesson 44, par. 5.)
1845. The potato crop failed in Ireland.
1846. Peel carried the **Repeal of the Corn Laws**. (Lesson 37, par. 14.)  
Peel resigned. **Lord John Russell became Prime Minister**. (Lesson 37, par. 14.)
1848. **The year of revolution**.  
War took place with the Sikhs. They were finally overcome at **Gujerat**, and the **Punjab** was formally annexed to the British Empire (1849). (Lesson 41, par. 5.)  
Battle of **Boomplaats**. (Lesson 44, par. 6.)
1850. Sir Robert Peel died. (Lesson 38, par. 10.)
1851. **The Great Exhibition** was held in Hyde Park, London.
1852. Lord John Russell resigned. **Lord Derby became Prime Minister** (February); resigned (December).  
**Lord Aberdeen**, at the head of a Coalition Ministry, became **Prime Minister**. Mr. Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer in this Ministry.



- 1853.** Mr. Gladstone introduced his **first Budget**.  
The **Eastern Question** was revived. (Lesson 39, par. 7.)
- 1854.** The **Crimean War** began (March). (Lesson 39, par. 10.)  
The battle of the **Alma** took place (September); **Sebastopol** was besieged (October); the battle of **Balaklava**, famous for the charges of the Heavy Brigade and the Light Brigade, took place (October); the battle of **Inkermann** was fought (November). (Lesson 40, pars. 4-9.)
- 1855.** Owing to the bad management of the Crimean War, Lord Aberdeen was forced to resign. **Lord Palmerston** became **Prime Minister**. (Lesson 40, par. 13.)  
The French captured the **Malakoff**. (Lesson 40, par. 15.)  
The **fall and evacuation of Sebastopol** took place (September). (Lesson 40, par. 15.)
- 1856.** **Oudh** was annexed. Outram was placed in charge of the province. (Lesson 41, par. 6.)  
The **Newspaper Stamp** was abolished.  
The Crimean War was closed by the **Treaty of Paris** (March). By this treaty Russia pledged herself not to keep vessels of war in the Black Sea. (This provision was cancelled by the Congress of London in 1871.) (Lesson 40, par. 16.)
- 1857.** The **Indian Mutiny** began with outbreaks of the Sepoys at Meerut and Delhi (May); the **Massacre of Cawnpur** was carried out by order of Nana Sahib (July); **Delhi**, which was garrisoned by 30,000 rebels and besieged by 8,000 British, was captured in September; **Lucknow** was relieved temporarily in September, and finally by Sir Colin Campbell in November. (Lessons 41 and 42.)
- 1858.** The **supremacy of the East India Company** came to an **end**; India was transferred to the Crown; Queen Victoria was proclaimed in India. (Lesson 42, par. 7.)  
The **Fenian** movement in Ireland began.
- 1860.** The **Paper Duty** was abolished.
- 1863.** The Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward the Seventh) married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark.
- 1865.** Lord Palmerston died.
- 1866.** Mr. Gladstone introduced a **Reform Bill**, which was rejected; the Liberal Government was defeated. **Lord Derby** became **Prime Minister**.
- 1867.** Mr. Disraeli introduced a **Reform Bill**; the Bill was carried. It extended the franchise to householders in boroughs and to lodgers occupying the same lodgings for a year and paying an annual rent of £10.  
The Fenian movement was crushed.
- 1868.** The general election gave the Liberals an enormous majority, and **Mr. Gladstone** became **Prime Minister**.
- 1869.** The **Irish Church** was disestablished.
- 1870.** The **first Irish Land Act** was passed.  
**Mr. Forster's Education Act** was passed: it established School Boards.
- 1872.** The **Ballot Act** was passed. (Lesson 35, par. 12.)
- 1874.** Mr. Gladstone resigned. **Mr. Disraeli** became **Prime Minister**.
- 1876.** Mr. Disraeli was raised to the peerage as **Lord Beaconsfield**.  
Queen Victoria proclaimed **Empress of India**. (Lesson 42, par. 7.)
- 1877.** The Russo-Turkish War broke out. Turkey was beaten, and peace was made by the Treaty of San Stefano.  
The **Home Rule** party, founded by Isaac Butt in 1873, became powerful under the leadership of **Mr. Parnell**.  
The Transvaal annexed (April 12). (Lesson 44, par. 3.)
- 1878.** The **Berlin Congress** met.  
Afghanistan was invaded. The British troops withdrew after restoring our prestige. (Lesson 42, par. 13.)
- 1879.** The "**Dual Control**" of France and Great Britain in Egypt was established. (Lesson 43, par. 7.)  
The **Irish Land League** was formed.  
The **Zulu War**. (Lesson 44, par. 3.)
- 1880.** Mr. Gladstone again became **Prime Minister**.
- 1881.** Lord Beaconsfield died.  
The **second Irish Land Act** was passed.  
**Arrest of Mr. Parnell** and other members of the Land League.

1881. They were imprisoned in Kilmainham Jail.  
British defeat at **Majuba Hill** (February 26). (Lesson 44, par. 4.)
1882. **Lord Frederick Cavendish**, Chief Secretary for Ireland, and **Mr. Burke**, his secretary, were murdered in Phoenix Park, Dublin.  
The **bombardment of Alexandria**. Lord Wolseley defeated Arabi at the battle of **Tel-el-Kebir**. (Lesson 43, par. 6.)
1884. **General Gordon** was besieged by the Mahdi in Khartum. A relief expedition under Lord Wolseley arrived too late; Gordon was killed. (Lesson 43, par. 11.)
1885. The **third Reform Bill**. (Lesson 35, par. 13.)  
A general election took place. **Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister** for the third time (February 1886).
1886. Mr. Gladstone introduced two Irish Bills, one for **Home Rule**, and the other a **Land Purchase Bill**.  
Parliament was dissolved. **Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister**.  
The **annexation of Upper Burma** took place.
1887. The "**Plan of Campaign**" was adopted by the Land Leaguers.
1888. A **Special Commission** was appointed to examine into the working of the Land League.  
The **Local Government Act** was passed.
1891. The "**Newcastle Programme**." Home Rule was placed in the forefront of the programme.  
The **Assisted Education Act** was passed.
1892. A general election took place. **Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister** for the fourth time.
1893. The **second Home Rule Bill** was introduced.
1894. The **Local Government Act**.  
Mr. Gladstone resigned. **Lord Rosebery became Prime Minister**.
1895. Lord Rosebery resigned. **Lord Salisbury again became Prime Minister**.
1896. The **reconquest of the Sudan**. (Lesson 43, par. 12.)
1897. The **Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria**.  
Severe and prolonged fighting took place on the **North-west Frontier of India**.
1898. The battle of the **Atbara** was fought in the Sudan. (Lesson 43, par. 12.)  
**Imperial Penny Postage** was sanctioned.  
Death of Mr. Gladstone (May 19).  
Battle of **Omdurman**. (Lesson 43, par. 12.)
1899. The **Boer War** began (October). (Lesson 44, par. 6.)
1900. **Annexation of Free State** (May). **Transvaal annexed** (September 1). (Lesson 44, par. 9.)
1901. **Federation of Australia** accomplished (January 1).  
Death of Queen Victoria (January 22), and accession of **Edward the Seventh**.
1902. **Peace signed at Pretoria** (May 21). (Lesson 44, par. 10.)
1904. **Russo-Japanese War** began.
1905. Liberal Government formed under Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman.
1906. **Self-government** granted to Transvaal and to the Orange River Colony (1907).
1908. Death of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Mr. H. H. Asquith became Prime Minister.  
**Old Age Pensions Act**.
1909. **Union of South Africa**.
1910. Death of Edward the Seventh (May 6), and accession of **George the Fifth**.  
General election. Liberal Government formed under Mr. Asquith.
1911. **Parliament Act** passed.  
**National Insurance Act** passed.  
Coronation Durbar of the King-Emperor at Delhi.
1914. **War declared by Great Britain on Germany** (August 4).
1918. **Armistice with Germany** (November 11).







